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NOTICE.

The Board of Directors at their last meeting in Philadelphia neglected to appoint a Committee on Publication. The undersigned is by the Constitution *ex-officio* chairman of such committee and hence has had to act alone. There has been a delay of about a month in getting out this volume in consequence of waiting for the plates of the portion in the reform spelling, the other printing being all done about the middle of December. It is hoped, however, that the interest that attaches to the volume in its present state will compensate for the delay. Several persons were late in sending in their addresses, reports, etc., or the printing might have been completed by the middle of November. On page 223 it is stated that the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence at the Washington meetings in 1877 and 1879 published by the Bureau of Education not being the property of Association can not be bound with the volume and sent to members. It is a pleasure to state that 500 copies have been secured which will be bound with this volume. This number will be sufficient to supply all members with the full proceedings, but 500 copies of this volume will contain only the proceedings at Philadelphia.

W: D. HENKLE, Chairman,
of the Committee on Publication.

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GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

MORNING SESSION.

The Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association was opened in the Girls' Normal-School Building, in Philadelphia, Pa., at 10½ o'clock, A. M., Tuesday, July 29th, 1879.

President JOHN HANCOCK called the Association to order and prayer was offered by the Rev. A. D. MAYO. The Association was then welcomed by Mayor WM. S. STOKELY in the following

ADDRESS.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen, Members of the National Educational Association.

I cordially welcome you to the City of Brotherly Love. It is fitting that you should celebrate the attainment of your majority in the city where your Association was organized twenty-one years ago, and I trust that your stay among us may be made very pleasant, and that your deliberations may tend to the advancement of the cause of popular education.

The perpetuation of a free government, and the stability of Republican Institutions can only be maintained by the education of those who are to become citizens, and from whom the country's rulers are to be chosen.

Your duties in ascertaining the best modes of conveying and imparting instruction to the youthful mind, fitting the recipients for the arduous duties of life, and so shaping and directing their studies that they may become useful and intelligent members of society, while a very pleasant task, is attended with grave responsibilities; and my earnest wish is that the present convention, under the guidance of Him from whom comes all knowledge, may be of great service in strengthening and refreshing those who teach, that they in turn may have enlarged opportunities and increased capabilities to impart knowledge to the rising generation.

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., then followed with the following

ADDRESS.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:

The pleasing privilege of giving you words of welcome and cordial greeting on behalf of the educational interests of Philadelphia has fallen upon me during the unavoidable absence of my friend Mr. Steel, President

of our Board of Education. You are now assembled in the place of the nativity of your Association. Twenty-one years ago you left us, and have now attained lawful age. Meanwhile you have travelled over our land, from city to city, increasing in strength and usefulness and scattering broadcast your combined wisdom and experience. At last you gather again around the parental hearthstone in the pride and vigor of full manhood. It is fitting, therefore, that Philadelphia's honored and respected Chief Magistrate, the Mayor, should tender a city's welcome, and all these words of his I cordially second, bidding you a thousand welcomes and offering unto you, collectively and individually, the kindest greetings and salutations.

In doing so I respond not only to the feelings of every educational official and teacher, but to those of a city's million. It is true that we have not killed for you the fatted calf, yet we have prepared the tables for the feast of reason which you yourselves have provided. All of our institutions of learning, of science, art, and benevolence have opened wide their doors to our guests. The time-honored University of Pennsylvania invites you to its palatial edifices, literary, scientific, and medical. The Academy of Fine Arts seeks your presence in its costly, refined, and elegant galleries. The Academy of Natural Sciences, the largest in America, bids you welcome there. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb invites your attendance, as does also the Museum of Industrial Art in Centennial grounds, and you are claimed at the last of your three days, at the Permanent Exhibition, at the Main Building, which is honored by all who love our Centennial memories. All Philadelphia's institutions bid you welcome, and in truth, ladies and gentlemen, you are welcome everywhere in our city of Brotherly Love.

May I tell you a profound secret in implicit confidence? We are a proud people; proud of our ancient memories and history; proud of the legion of great and good men who have been born or lived or died with us; proud of the noble acts of our ancestors in the days which tried the very hearts and reins of men; of our institutions and their fruits, and proud of the fresh Centennial memories which have so gilded and reflected American honor, intelligence, and learning in every corner of the earth. That is my secret. But we are proud also, of the presence here to-day of the vast array of wise and learned men and women who compliment Philadelphia by meeting here in educational conclave. This last is no secret. I ask you to blazon forth this pride on the permanent pages of your record.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, I bear to you Philadelphia's cordial salutation, greetings, good-will, and welcome, and beg your acceptance of them.

At the close of this address Mr. SHIPPEN stated that a card of membership in the Association would admit the holder of it, free of charge, to nearly every place of special interest in the City, and read special invitations to visit the following:—

1. Permanent Exhibition.
2. Academy of the Fine Arts.
3. Academy of the Natural Sciences.
4. Franklin Institute.
5. Teachers' Institute.
6. Institution for the Blind.
7. Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.
8. University of Pennsylvania.
9. Girard College.
10. Wagner Free Institute of Science.
11. Mercantile Library.
12. Philadelphia Library.
13. Pennsylvania Historical Society.
14. United States Mint.
15. Masonic Temple.
16. Memorial Hall.
17. School of Design for Women.
18. American District Telegraph Co.

President HANCOCK responded to the address of welcome in the following

ADDRESS.

This city has many sacred associations, and we come here to celebrate our majority, and I trust that this celebration will be of such a character that we shall go away strengthened for our work, and that the Association will leave associations for good for your people. Mr. Mayor, you preside over one of the great cities of the world—a city containing nearly one million inhabitants; a city which has more comfortable homes for its laboring classes in proportion to the population than any other city on the globe. Your prosperity is founded upon a solid basis; it is founded upon the intelligence of its people. Here was given expression to the thought that has cheered men and rendered them enthusiastic all over the world. Here was pronounced the doctrine of equality of chances in life, and our educational system only goes to carry out that grand doctrine.

The gentleman who has spoken for the Board of Education I sincerely thank for the welcome extended us. I have learned that you have an army of 100,000 children in your public schools. This army is led by 2000 teachers. What an army, what a corps is this in the community! It is an army that marches to conquests of peace, and such an army is irresistible when properly officered. It is not only in this school, in this army, that you are strong, but your higher institutions are buttressing the walls of your material intellectual wealth so that no enemy can throw them down and enter upon your domain. You have Girard College, a grand charity, your Academy of Fine Arts, with its fine collection of paintings, and other institutions with elevating influences throughout your whole city. Your Permanent Exhibition, which is a continuation of the grandest exhibition which was ever held in this or any other country, is also a great educator. All these things are going on to build you

up in the prosperity that, as I think, has its foundation upon a basis that cannot be overturned. On behalf of the Association I tender our thanks to you, Mr. Mayor, and to the gentleman who has spoken for the Board of Education.

The President then proceeded to read the following

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

A half century ago two great educational organizations were established in this country. The one embraced in its field of operations chiefly the New-England States; the other the States of the Mississippi Valley. A great cloud of teachers in the midst of the noble White Mountains joined in the exercises of the fiftieth annual meeting of the first, within the present month; the second held its last meeting in the year 1845. It matters little which may justly claim precedence by a year, and this is no place to discuss the question. In the one were found the learning, wisdom, zeal, and self-sacrifice of the educators of the older part of our country, of that section which has done so much to shape all our institutions; in the other were united for like purposes the educators of the same character belonging to the States of the Great West.

The American Institute of Instruction had its origin in a convention of teachers held in the city of Boston, in the month of March, 1830. At this meeting a committee, consisting of EBENEZER BAILEY, BENJAMIN D. EMERSON, ABRAHAM ANDREWS, GEORGE B. EMERSON, GIDEON F. THAYER, HENRY K. OLIVER, and J. WILDER, was appointed to prepare a constitution. This duty was discharged by the committee, and the first regular meeting of the Association was held in Boston on the 19th of August of the same year. The introductory discourse was delivered by Rev. FRANCIS WAYLAND, President of Brown University, "On the Object of Intellectual Education, and the Manner in which that Object is to be Attained."

It had been proposed to call the society the New-England Association of Teachers, but as several other States were represented in the meeting, a more comprehensive name was given it. But notwithstanding its amended title, the American Institute has been and still remains essentially a New-England institution, though educators from other States have always received a hearty welcome to its meetings. One needs but to glance through its fifty published volumes of proceedings to learn how wide has been the field covered by its discussions. It is safe to say that no subject, however remote its connection with education, has escaped notice. And when we read over the roll of great men who participated in these discussions, there is no need of inquiry as to the ability with which all topics were treated. In addition to the names already given as belonging to the early history of the Institute may be added those of MANN, BARNARD, ALCOTT, COLBURN, DWIGHT, GREENE, FELTON, FOWLE, NORTHEED, PIERCE, RUSSELL, SEARS, PHILBRICK, TWEED, MISS PEABODY, and a mighty host scarcely less eminent.

Now that women have deservedly come to occupy so prominent a place as instructors of youth, the following provision of the original constitution of the Institute has a ring of the antique about it, and can scarcely fail to

cause a smile. They might not become members, but they were graciously accorded the following mandatory privilege by Art. II., Sec. 6: "Ladies engaged in teaching shall be invited to hear the annual address, lectures, and reports of committees on subjects of education."

The American Institute, like most voluntary associations for the promotion of the public welfare, has undergone many vicissitudes, seeming more than once nigh unto death; but now, in its fiftieth year, it has renewed its youth, and seems in a fair way to live a thousand years, strong to battle with vice and ignorance.

In the year 1829 was organized at Cincinnati an association of teachers which was called the "Academic Institute." This association soon took on larger proportions and a longer name; and in June, 1831, the first general convention of the teachers of the Mississippi Valley met in Cincinnati, and the "Academic Institute" became the "Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers." The Mississippi Valley had not then the comparative national importance it has since attained, and it was almost altogether dependent on New England and other Eastern States for its educational notions. Without designing it, this movement was one in the direction of greater independence. Among the members noteworthy in the educational history of the country, time allows me but to mention ALBERT PICKETT, T. J. MATTHEWS, ALEXANDER KINMONT, W. H. MCGUFFEY, DR. DANIEL DRAKE, MILO G. WILLIAMS, DR. JOSEPH RAY, E. D. MANSFIELD, CALVIN E. STOWE, ALEXANDER CAMPBELL, SAMUEL LEWIS, O. M. MITCHELL, J. H. PERKINS, DR. JOHN LOCKE, J. MCD. MATTHEWS, J. B. PURCELL, and CAROLINE LEE HENTZ.

This Association, generally known under the shorter name of the Western College of Teachers, less vigorous it would seem than its associate of the East, or it may be because planted in a less congenial soil, finally ceased to exist in the year 1845. But it did not live in vain. It contributed more than any other agency, perhaps, to the upbuilding on a solid foundation of the great free-school system of the West, and to the introduction therein of the best methods of teaching. In its meetings and by its discussions was trained the great, unselfish, practical, and eloquent friend of the "people's colleges," SAMUEL LEWIS, who began his career in Ohio the same year that HORACE MANN entered upon his in Massachusetts—two men in whose works the whole nation has been blessed.

In looking over the list of subjects discussed in the earlier meetings of the Association, I have been surprised at their identity with those discussed in our educational meetings of a recent date, and to the similarity of treatment. But if we consider for a moment, we shall find little cause for wonder, since they are subjects which touch the most important of human interests, everywhere and in all time. As a matter of curious interest I copy a few of them:—

On Physical Education.

Ought Anatomy and Physiology to constitute a part of education?

What is the best method of teaching English Grammar?

How far is it practicable to introduce the Physical Sciences into the Common Schools?

On Music in the Common Schools.

The most efficient means of conducting examinations.

On the qualifications of teachers.

On the best methods of classifying pupils, and arranging the studies to be pursued in Common Schools.

On the expediency of making the Course of Instruction in Common Schools so ample and various as to meet the wants of all classes of citizens.

How far military exercises and discipline may be profitably introduced into colleges.

On schools for educating teachers for the supply of common-school instruction.

On the most efficient mode of giving moral instruction in common schools.

On the evils resulting from the changes of teachers.

On the best method of governing schools.

On the proper ventilation of school-houses.

But the Western College of Teachers having been long dead, it occurred to leading educators of various locations to supplement the agencies of the American Institute and the several State Teachers' Associations by an organization broad enough to gather into itself the best thought of the whole country, and to enable its educators to unite their efforts for a common purpose. It seems eminently proper in this goodly city, the city of Franklin, wherein this Association had its birth, and in a sense attains its majority, to give a short sketch of its origin and work.

I am informed on good authority that the most active worker for the establishing of this Association was T. W. Valentine, recently deceased, at that time President of the New-York State Teachers' Association. The following call to the Teachers of the United States was written by D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, and is dated May 15, 1857. So far as I know the copy before me is the only one in existence. For that reason, and for the more important one that it sets forth with conciseness the purposes of our Association, I reproduce it in full:

"The eminent success which has attended the establishment and operations of the several State Teachers' Associations in this country, is the source of mutual congratulations among all friends of popular education. To the direct agency and the diffused influence of these Associations, more, perhaps, than to any other cause, are due the manifest improvement of schools in all their relations, the rapid intellectual and social elevation of teachers as a class, and the vast development of public interest in all that concerns the education of the young.

"That the State Associations have already accomplished great good, and that they are destined to exert a still broader and more beneficent influence, no wise observer will deny.

"Believing that what has been done for States by State Associations may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia on the 26th day of August next, for the purpose of organizing a

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

"We cordially extend this invitation to all *practical teachers* in the

North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all the accumulated experience of all who are ready to devote their energies and contribute their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the nation should gather into one great Educational Brotherhood.

"As the permanent success of any association depends very much upon the auspices attending its establishment, and the character of the organic laws which it adopts, it is hoped that all parts of the Union will be largely represented at the inauguration of the proposed enterprise.

"T. W. VALENTINE,

"President New-York State Teachers' Association.

"D. B. HAGAR,

"President Massachusetts State Teachers' Association.

"W. T. LUCKY,

"President Missouri State Teachers' Association.

"J. TENNY,

"President New-Hampshire State Teachers' Association.

"J. G. MAY,

"President Indiana State Teachers' Association.

"W. ROBERTS,

"President Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.

"C. PEASE,

"President Vermont State Teachers' Association.

"D. FRANKLIN WELLS,

"President Iowa State Teachers' Association.

"A. C. SPICER,

"President Wisconsin State Teachers' Association."

An extra of the *New-York Teacher*, then edited by James Cruikshank, contains the proceedings of the Convention which met in pursuance of this call in the Athenæum Building, Philadelphia, August 26, 1857. James L. Enos, of Iowa, was appointed temporary chairman, and William E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, secretary. Messrs. Hagar, of Mass., Cann, of Georgia, and Challen, of Indiana, were appointed a committee to draft a constitution. The name of the Association under the constitution as adopted was "The National Teachers' Association." This name, in accordance with a more liberal provision subsequently adopted in regard to membership, was changed to the present one of National Educational Association. The qualifications for membership were as follows:

"Any gentleman who is regularly occupied in teaching in a public or private elementary school, college, or university, or who is regularly employed as a private tutor, as the editor of an educational journal, or as a superintendent of schools, shall be eligible to membership.

"Whenever a member of this Association shall abandon the profession of teaching, or the business of editing an educational journal, or superintending schools, he shall cease to be a member."

The reason membership was so carefully restricted to those engaged in the active work of instruction was doubtless to promote one of the leading objects of the Association, the building up of the teacher's calling into a profession. Like the American Institute, our Association did not recognize the equality of men and women in the profession, though it took a step in advance of the Institute in regard to the rights of the latter; for, whereas the Institute only accorded women the right of listening to the wise things made public by their brethren, our Association extended to them the additional privilege of presenting thoughts of their own, under a curious restriction, as will be seen from the article of the constitution relating to membership of women, which I quote:

"Ladies engaged in teaching may, on the recommendation of the Board of Directors, become honorary members and shall thereby possess the right of presenting, in the form of written essays (to be read by the secretary or any other member whom they may select), their views upon the subject assigned for discussion."

It is scarcely necessary to say that women possess, at the present, the same rights as men, both in this Association and in the American Institute.

Another article of our constitution was that after 1858 the meetings of the Association should be biennial.

There were in all ten States represented in the first meeting, viz:—Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and the District of Columbia. The number of members enrolled was 38. The teachers not already named who took an active part in the business and discussions of the meetings were J. W. BULKLEY and JAMES CRUIKSHANK, of New York; THOMAS GRANGER and J. W. BARRETT, of Illinois; N. R. LYNCH, of Delaware; E. W. WHELAN, of Missouri; J. D. GIDDINGS, of South Carolina; Z. RICHARDS, of the District of Columbia, and J. P. WICKERSHAM, H. C. HICKOK, and WILLIAM ROBERTS, of Pennsylvania. At the evening session, an address on the importance of the organization of a national association of *professional teachers*, prepared by Prof. WILLIAM RUSSELL, of Massachusetts, was read by T. W. VALENTINE, of New York. This seems to have been the only regular address made at the meeting.

The first election of officers under the constitution resulted in the choice of Z. RICHARDS of the District of Columbia, for President; T. W. VALENTINE of New York, for First Vice-President; J. W. BULKLEY of New York Secretary; and T. M. CANN of Delaware, Treasurer.

The first regular meeting under the constitution was held in Cincinnati, August, 1858, Z. RICHARDS, presiding. The attendance at this meeting, as at Philadelphia, was not large (73 members enrolled), the leading members, with a few exceptions, being from the East. But though small in numbers, it was great in ability and enthusiasm. HORACE MANN, then so near the close of his life and noble career, was one of the leading spirits of the occasion. This meeting demonstrated the stability of the Association, and with a few additional general facts, I take leave of its history. At the Cleveland meeting, held in August, 1870, the Association was reorganized, assuming its present name, and absorbing into itself as departments two other associations, namely, the American Normal-School Association and

the National Association of School Superintendents. Now, as it will be seen by glancing at our programme, the General Association has connected with it the following departments, viz:—

Department of Elementary Schools, Department of Higher Instruction, Department of Normal Schools, Department of School Superintendence, and the Department of Industrial Education. Besides these, we are glad this year to welcome to our meeting as another department that body of eminent and learned educators, known as the Spelling-Reform Association. I cannot, of course, speak for the Association, but my individual hope is that this temporary association may be made permanent.

This division into departments has enabled our Association to do vastly more work, and to do it better than could be possible, acting as a single body.

In its twenty-one years of existence the Association has held seventeen meetings, as follows:—

Cincinnati (1858), Z. RICHARDS, D. C., President.
Washington (1859), A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio, President.
Buffalo (1860)—J. W. BULKLEY, New York, President.
Chicago (1863)—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts, President.
Ogdensburg (1864)—W. H. WELLS, Illinois, President.
Harrisburg (1865)—S. S. GREENE, R. I., President.
Indianapolis (1866) J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania, President.
Nashville (1868)—J. M. GREGORY, Illinois, President.
Trenton (1869)—L. VAN BOKKELEN, Maryland, President.
Cleveland (1870)—D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts, President.
St. Louis, (1871)—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois, President.
Boston (1872)—E. E. WHITE, Ohio, President.
Elmira (1873)—B. G. NORTHROP, Connecticut, President.
Detroit (1874)—S. H. WHITE, Illinois, President.
Minneapolis (1875)—W. T. HARRIS, Mo., President.
Baltimore (1876)—W. F. PHELPS, Minn., President.
Louisville (1877) M. A. NEWELL, Md., President.

It will be seen from this list that the provision of the constitution as first adopted, restricting the Association to biennial meetings, must have been changed at the Cincinnati session.

From 1870 inclusive, up to the present time the proceedings of the Association and its several departments, and the addresses delivered therein, have been published in yearly bound volumes; and it will be safe to say these volumes contain a mass of professional literature excelled in value by no similar collection published anywhere.

Now that the Association has passed into its manly majority, we are sure that the whole country, and especially Pennsylvania, on whose soil it was born, will earnestly wish that it may constantly grow in strength and good works, and arrive at a flourishing old age. The American Institute is well, and State Associations are well, but our Association has both a national breadth and a national importance, and must be preserved.

Since its establishment there have been discussed in this body all the leading questions relating to the education of youth, such as the organization of schools, courses of study, methods of instruction, and the

influence the higher institutions of learning have upon the lower, and upon the development of civilization. In the discussion of these questions it has brought together the foremost men of all sections of the country, whose searching investigations and clear and forcible presentation of their several views have contributed largely to getting the best things known and done. Within the period of its existence perhaps not many great and original measures have had their origin, but those already rooted have been nourished and strengthened. Normal Schools have largely increased in numbers and efficiency; graded schools have multiplied many fold, and through them the schools of our cities and towns have become the best in the world,—ample proof of which statement will be presented in an address to be delivered at the present meeting. With the growth of the graded-school system, has extended the plan of having schools supervised by professional educators, with which no merely non-professional supervision can for one moment compare, and by this professional supervision have vitality and skill been introduced into every department of our public-school systems to an extent before unknown. In all these progressive movements, it is fair to claim this Association has exercised a full share of influence, reinforcing everywhere the efforts of more provincial organizations. There has, however, been one great educational agency established since the foundation of this Association, and of which the Association may be said to have been the special champion. I refer to the Bureau of Education. The defence of this institution when it has been attacked, and the support of its measures with an unflagging zeal, I regard to have been among the most useful and honorable of the labors of the Association.

Of the Centennial Exhibition, so grand in all its features, and so admirable in its management—a wondrous university to which people from every quarter of the earth came to learn lessons not taught in ordinary institutions of learning—the one feature most attractive to intelligent foreigners, was our Educational Exhibit. This showed them, as no other department of the exhibition could, the source of the activity of our people as inventors, and the substantial foundation on which their prosperity rests. This exhibition of the actual work done by our schools in their different grades, from the lowest primary to the senior class of the High School, was made in accordance with rules prepared by this Association, and a large part of its success was due to the active exertions of its membership in the several States.

Having thus briefly glanced at the early history of the Association, and more briefly to the work in which it has borne a part, the question which bears itself home upon us in this the completion of its twenty-first year, is, What enterprises shall it now set before itself for future accomplishment? Many of those who were active in its foundation have laid down their burden of labor to take it up no more forever; and those who remain of that early band have grown gray in service. We must then look to the younger members, with their greater vigor and higher courage, to push forward to greater achievements.

A few years ago the public mind was more nearly a unit on some questions of gravest import to our people than it seems to be now. One

of these is the question whether the high school ought to constitute a part of a system of free schools. This department of the system has within a few years been violently assailed by an influential portion of the public press, by politicians who would fain bear the name of statesmen, and by others in high places; but as yet the people have not been among these assailants, and if I mistake not both their intelligence and their temper, they never will be. Our national progress depends as much upon the diffusion of the higher learning as it does upon the universality of the elementary; and if this Association has but the courage of its convictions, it will oppose itself in the most aggressive way to every measure which shall tend to restrict this higher learning to a favored class. That democracy is a vain pretense which does not do what it lawfully may, and its means will allow, to give all its youth a fair start in life.

Another question which has lately assumed a prominent place in our discussions, is destined, I am sure, to occupy a place still more prominent; and that is the question how, if at all, we are to unite in our public-school systems the training of brain and hand. Technical schools, whether to supplement the training of academic institutions, or whether as a substitute for it, have secured a fixed place in our schemes of public education. But this other question has a much wider sweep. Instead of reaching but a few, it proposes to extend whatever advantages which may accrue from the training of the hand to the mass of youth in all schools above the most elementary. The theory of its advocates is that an entirely worthy education is one which teaches *to do* as well as *to think*. Say these advocates, "The scheme of manual training, aside from its practical value, will prove an important element in mental training, and those who take it will be possessed of as much mind-power at the end of their course as they would be if they gave their whole time to the usual course in book learning." That the union of the two kinds of training is highly desirable is coming to be acknowledged with considerable unanimity; but there lie many difficulties in the practical realization of the scheme in our schools. To determine the limitations of the theory—for some of its advocates are already becoming extravagant in their claims—and to overcome the practical difficulties referred to, is another important work for the Association.

The emancipation of more than four millions of slaves, brought about by the late civil war, has imposed upon the nation and upon every great educational organization a burden and responsibility not to be easily borne. Their education and that of the poor whites—who in this regard are often but little better off—involves in it the perpetuity of the government. In this vital matter this Association has been no idle looker-on. It has taken the ground that this is a national question, in which every section has an interest, and that the general government is morally bound, so far as the limitation of its powers will permit, to render aid. The Association has many times declared that the proceeds of the sales of public lands should be exclusively devoted to educational purposes. And as a body it has memorialized Congress to distribute such proceeds among the several States on the basis of illiteracy, with the intent that, as the South is poor and her needs great, she should, for many years to

come, receive the greater amount of aid. And no objectionable partiality will be shown by this course, for what strengthens her will strengthen all. I speak confidently when I state that the efforts of the Association in this direction have been gratefully appreciated by our friends of the South; and I speak with equal confidence in assuring those friends that the Association will never relax its exertions until such a measure has become a law. Nor will the Association stop there. It will join heart and hand with the people of the South in support of any other practical measure for the establishing among them a great and strong free-school system. By such mutual co-operation, and through the kind feelings it will engender, we may expect to cement the different sections of our country into a union strong, harmonious, and enduring.

It was one of the original purposes of this Association, as is witnessed by the call for its creation, to elevate teaching into a noble profession. This cannot be done except by the aid of professional schools. We may therefore expect that it will continue to be, as it has heretofore been, the bold and uncompromising defender of Normal Schools, and that it will persistently labor to increase their numbers and to make them a greater educational force than they have ever been, by giving breadth and exaltation to their purposes.

It is a question worthy serious consideration whether the Association should not devote more of its effort toward influencing legislation. Our discussions on practical themes too often come to nothing, because their conclusions are not embodied in laws, which might often be effected if united exertions were made to that end. With most legislative bodies the views of such an Association as this on educational matters, if properly presented, would, in the very nature of things, have great weight.

My immediate predecessor in the office I am now called upon to fill, in his inaugural address spoke with a charming eloquence of the value of books and the creation of a general taste for good reading. The establishment of free libraries is scarcely less important than the establishment of free schools. Few of our cities and towns are unprovided with these valuable adjuncts to a school education, but the mass of our population is in the country districts; and how to get into the hands of the children of these districts, aye, of the men and women too, good books, books which shall refine and ennoble, is a question of the highest moment. To cultivate a taste for good reading is the most efficacious, possibly the only way of uplifting the great people.

In this connection, and believing it to be one of the attributes of this Association, both in its organized and individual capacity, to encourage all worthy educational movements wherever they may arise, I take pleasure in referring to the scheme of Rev. J. H. Vincent, of the Chautauqua Reading and Scientific Circles, for carrying into homes in sequestered country places as well as into the homes of the city and town, the best kind of reading on the best of topics. The scheme includes more than this. He sets the inmates of these homes—old and young—at work upon regular courses of study, bringing, in a sense, a university to every man's door. He does not claim that these courses can be profitably substituted for the more thorough and systematic ones of the schools; but I

think he may justly claim that they will be of inestimable value to those whose school privileges have been few, and even to scholars who possess a desire to add to the store of their school learning. To many minds which would otherwise have groped in darkness they bring an enduring light. The whole country is now dotted with Dr. Vincent's reading and studying "circles," with a membership of nearly ten thousand and the plan is capable of indefinite extension. Thus in accordance with an idea which seems almost an inspiration, goes on in uncounted homes the study of history, of general literature, of astronomy, of the science of every-day life—lifting the inmates of these homes out of their life of daily toil into a region of pure intellectual delights. No one can have observed in his own community the results of this scheme without feeling that the work is worthy the highest commendation.

The question as to whether Kindergarten schools shall constitute an integral part of our common-school systems is one claiming more and more of the public thought. If such a measure should be adopted, it would exercise a most powerful influence on the whole scheme of public instruction—an influence more powerful than has resulted from any educational measure adopted within the last half century. Its results would be even more far-reaching, and, as I believe, more beneficial, than those wrought by the introduction of the natural methods of instruction, grand as they have been. The subject has already been discussed with some fulness in the Association, and is to come before one of the departments at the present session. When it has been discussed in all its bearings, the conclusion reached by the Association should be expressed in that way that shall give it greatest weight.

In what I have said in the foregoing pages, I have attempted to give voice to what I conceived to be the general mind of the Association as to what its future work should be. I now beg to express, in a word, views entertained probably by only a minority of the Association, and certainly by only a minority of the people. Important as I deem the different lines of work I have pointed out, I do not think them grand enough to call out all the powers of the National Educational Association. I believe it ought to test its strength on measures greater than the greatest of these. One of these measures—the supreme one as I view it—is compulsory education. I weary of half-way measures. If education is what we profess to believe it—the one earthly good to be chosen before all others—why should we hesitate to throw ourselves into the advocacy of a measure that will make it universal. To carry learning into all homes and to make it the possession of every creature, so that there shall no more be a neglected class in this country of ours—that, as it seems to me, is a work altogether worthy the full powers of this great organization.

On motion of the Secretary, W: D. HENKLE, T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of West Virginia, and W: T. Seal of Pennsylvania, were appointed respectively first and second assistant Secretaries.

On motion of the Treasurer, J. ORMOND WILSON, JOSEPH M. WILSON and CLARENCE B. RHEEM, of the District of Columbia, were elected respectively first and second Assistant Treasurers.

The Rev. GEO. P. HAYS, of Pa., offered the following resolution, which was adopted :

Resolved, That the thanks of this body are due and are hereby tendered to those inviting members of this Association to the special privileges stated by Mr. SHIPPEN.

Announcements were made as to the place of meeting of the different Departments and on motion of the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, the time of the meetings of the Departments was fixed at 3 P. M., for July 29 and 30.

E. A. SINGER of the Local Committee of Invitation, announced that free tickets were ready for delivery to members for the Concert and Evening Address in the Academy of Music. He also announced an excursion to Cape May on Friday.

Prof. W. F. PHELPS, of Minnesota, read the paper of the Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, entitled

THE HIGH-SCHOOL QUESTION.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen :

I have been invited to read to you a brief paper on High Schools and Secondary Instruction. What I shall say will seem to have almost exclusive reference to the history and character of High Schools in Massachusetts, and of the rights and duties of Massachusetts to give them public support. If one of the free States of the Republic differed essentially from another in so far as rights and duties with reference to its educational institutions are concerned, my arguments would be out of place here. If the natural rights of individual men were not the same wherever individual men exist, then, my reasons could have only a limited and special significance; but as the destiny of all States and of individuals controlled by self-imposed rules, is determined by the same causes, the particular statements I shall make, and which seem to refer to one State only, may be considered to have a general application. With this caution to my hearers. I will ask them to think of general truths while I describe what in some respects seems to refer to an individual.

In 1642 the colony of Massachusetts Bay, through its representatives in the general court, passed an act enjoining upon the municipal authorities the duty of providing for the education of every child within their respective jurisdictions.

In 1647 every township containing one hundred families or householders was required to maintain a grammar school, whose master should be able to fit the boys for the University. The character of these schools may be inferred from the conditions established in 1642, by President DUNSTER, for admission of boys to Harvard College. The conditions were as follows:—"When any scholar is able to read Tully, or such like classical Latin authors extempore, **and make** and speak true Latin in verse and prose 'Suo (ut aiunt) marte,' and decline perfectly the paradigms of nouns

and verbs in the Greek tongue, then may he be admitted into the college, nor shall any claim admission before he possesses such qualifications;” and President DUNSTER made a rule that throughout their course the scholars were not to use the vernacular within the college limits, except when called to deliver an oration or some other public exercise in English. From what has been said it may be known, that the Grammar schools of 1647 are not to be confounded with the schools of modern times called by the same name. The ancient Grammar schools received their name not from the fact that they gave instruction in English Grammar merely, but because they resembled the old Cathedral Grammar schools of England, or the Cloister schools of the monasteries, in which schools the teaching of the Latin and Greek was the especial aim.

In the old statute of 1647, we find expressed the original notion of gradation in our town schools. The Grammar schools of that day were at the head of the system, and so were the type of the high school of the present.

In 1683 all towns of five hundred families were required to maintain two grammar schools and two writing schools, and any town failing to support a grammar school was required to pay a fine, first of 10£, afterwards one of 20£ to the nearest school kept in compliance with the law. Mr. GEO. B. EMERSON says, “that this law of 1647, establishing free schools on a broad and comprehensive basis, not only had no precedent in the school legislation of any country, but the ideas expressed by the law seem never before to have entered the minds of men.

Two divine ideas, says Horace Mann, seem to have filled the great hearts of our Massachusetts Fathers, their duty to God, and their duty to their children. The term High School does not occur in any of the Statutes, from the earliest to the present time, but by common consent, it is now applied to those schools kept for the benefit of the whole town. In 1826, fifty-three years ago, an act was passed establishing our present system of High Schools. By this act provision was made for the free education of every child in the Commonwealth in the common branches of learning, and it was also provided that besides the Elementary Schools a town containing five hundred families shall maintain a school kept for the benefit of the whole town, in which school a course of secondary instruction shall be given. I have now spoken of the origin and character of our high schools, and have shown that from the earliest times it has been the policy of the Commonwealth to require these schools to be maintained at the public expense. In modern times it is affirmed by some that the right and duty of the State to provide schools for its children are limited to providing those which give instruction in the elementary branches of learning only. To test the propriety of this affirmation it is necessary to determine first what is meant by the State, and secondly what are the rights and duties of a free State.

A free civil State, like Massachusetts, is a community of persons living within well-defined limits of territory, acting under a permanent organization and controlled by self-imposed rules, for the purpose of securing to themselves protection in the enjoyment of the objects of their natural rights, and for their development as intellectual and moral beings. The

existence of the state is necessary for two ends, protection and human development. The State is necessary for protection in the enjoyment of the objects of natural rights, as man is governed more or less by the selfish principle of action. It is necessary for human development; for 1st, there can be no proper development of human nature, except in well-organized communities whose institutions are adapted to train the youth in societies, rather than in a state of isolation; and, 2nd, the means of development cannot be supplied except by the combined effort of communities of persons.

The amount of protection a State affords, will depend upon the amount of development of the people her educational institutions produce.

The rights of property, and liberty, and life, will be violated unless first, they are known to be rights, and, secondly unless the disastrous consequences of disturbing them are also known and conscientiously regarded. Protection results from human development and that development is Education. I use the term Education or development to mean that state of the mind in which it is able and inclined to exert all the energy of which it is capable in obtaining a knowledge of what ought to be known; in producing such emotions as the knowledge is adapted to excite, and in choosing the best ends. The education of all the people of a State is necessary that the State may have the power and the disposition to secure the two ends for which States exist.

What then are the rights and duties of the State in relation to Education? In discussing this question we are sometimes led to consider the people and the State to be two distinct objects of thought, and we inquire for the obligations of the one and for the rights and the duties of the other. If the definition we have given of the State is the correct one, the people and the State are one and the same thing. This being true, what may the people acting as a State do for themselves as individuals? The people constituting a democratic State and acting as a State, may properly exercise their power in doing anything whatever that is necessary to be done for their own protection and development, and which acting as individuals they cannot so well do, each for himself alone. The State as an end in itself is of no consequence, and it is not to be supported as an end; and individual members composing the State have no interest in it only so far as it enables them to secure for themselves the two ends for which States exist. It has been shown that individuals acting independently can not provide themselves with that instruction and training which will produce the State called Education.

The mind is instructed and trained by all the influences that in any way affect it, but most of the systematic work done to educate, is done in the schools. The State, then, should establish and maintain public schools, and into them should be gathered all the children of the State. From what has been said it would seem that these children should be kept in the schools until they have acquired a knowledge of their own wants as physical and moral beings; of the means of gratifying these wants; of the relations they bear to one another as members of society, and of the relations they bear to the State whose institutions they are to perpetuate. They should also acquire that mental and moral training without which

a knowledge of the truth cannot be obtained, and which if obtained would be of no value to its possessor. There is not now in the mind of any man whose judgment has anything to do in forming public opinion a doubt concerning the propriety and necessity of providing for elementary instruction in public schools, supported by equal taxation or from the income of a permanent fund, established by the State, or supported from both these sources. There are some, however, who affirm that secondary instruction cannot with equal justice to all be provided for in Secondary Schools established by the State and supported by a general tax.

After what has been said of the rights and duties of the State, it only remains to be shown that secondary instruction is necessary to the well-being of the individual, and to the existence and highest civilization of a free State, and then elementary and scientific or secondary schools are to be supported by the same means and for the same reasons. This will lead us to compare the two grades of schools, 1st, with reference to the kind of knowledge each has for its object. 2d, with reference to the relation the two kinds of knowledge hold to each other. 3d, with reference to the training the mind receives in obtaining knowledge, and 4th, with reference to the preparation the knowledge and training furnish for the duties of practical life and for citizenship. And first it is the peculiar province of the elementary schools to teach facts, without much reference to the causes of them, or to any general principles philosophy may derive from them. In the secondary schools the learner is required to refer the facts he has discovered to their causes, and to reason for general principles. The relation elementary holds to secondary knowledge is, the one prepares the mind with knowledge and training for the other. A knowledge of plants prepares the mind for a knowledge of Botany; a knowledge of number leads to a knowledge of arithmetic; a knowledge of language is necessary to a knowledge of Grammar, and a knowledge of the facts of any science will prepare the mind for the science itself.

A study for facts trains the mind to observe, and gives it an inclination to use its observing power. A study for scientific knowledge trains the reflective powers to reason for general principles.

A complete system of schools includes both the elementary and the scientific schools. As facts learned in the primary schools, are good for nothing except for the activity they occasion the mind to exert and for the general principles they lead the mind to obtain, the secondary schools give character and aim and value to the elementary schools, which have little meaning except as they are related to the schools above them; for if the secondary schools are taken from our system or are degraded in any way, then our children will be in danger of being turned into active life without a knowledge of those general principles which alone can guide them to the successful prosecution of any business, and without that culture which alone can enable them to perform well any public or private duty. Both private and public interest demand that the schools add to that teaching which results in mere information, that which produces an ability to reason correctly for general principles and an inclination to do what ought to be done. JOHN ADAMS said that the instruction of the

people in every kind of knowledge that can be of use to them in the practice of their moral duties as men, citizens, and christians, and of their political and civil duties as members of society and freemen, ought to be the care of the public, and of all who have any share in the conduct of its affairs. High schools in our public-school system hold the relation of a part to a whole. Without them there could be no true scientific teaching in our system of public schools. The pupils of the elementary schools would be sent out into public life without a proper training of their reflective faculties by whose activity general principles are discovered, and rules of conduct are constructed. The elementary schools cannot teach methods of thinking nor those doctrines which direct one in all the affairs of life.

If we remove the High Schools from the system, there will be no longer open to all the means of obtaining that knowledge which directs to a successful individual life and which trains individuals to be intelligent and good citizens in a highly-civilized and free Commonwealth.

Again, the secondary schools in the towns always stimulate the schools below them.

The courses of studies taught in the High Schools and the methods of teaching practiced in them determine the studies and the methods in the lower schools. In this way, the influence of one grade of instruction over another is from above downward in so far as relates to what shall be taught and to the manner of teaching, while it is from below upward in all that which relates to thoroughness of the work done. FRANCIS ADAMS of England says that "if the elementary schools of Germany are the best in the world, it is owing in a great measure to the fact that the higher schools are open to all classes. In England not only have the aims of the elementary schools been educationally low and narrow, but an impassable gulf has separated the people's schools from the higher schools of the country." In the commonwealth of Massachusetts over 90 per cent of the population are within the reach of High Schools and the path lies open to them for the children of the poor as well as of the rich. Without them poor boys and girls would be deprived of the means of obtaining that liberal culture which sets the mind free from prejudice and enables one to hold equal rank with the best of his fellows.

Free instruction in the higher branches of learning is necessary to prevent all those class distinctions that are sure to spring up if such instruction can be obtained only by a favored few. A republican State and republican society are both impossible unless the children of the State are educated alike and together in the same schools, to that extent at least, necessary to enable and incline their minds to think alike and judge alike on all questions pertaining to the principles on which rest republican institutions. That the schools may be common schools they must be established and supported by the State, and all the conditions of their existence must be secured by the guardian care and by the authority of the State. It is the great mission of a republican State to support its public schools, for in this way it can best accomplish the two purposes for which States were established. There will be some ignorant men in all countries and in all times, but in a free State the number of these men must be reduced

to the smallest possible number, and their ignorance must not be due to the character or condition of the institutions under which they live. To make education universal, the schools must be free and the attendance upon them compulsory.

"A popular government," says MADISON, "without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy, or perhaps to both." Knowledge will forever govern ignorance, and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives. In the Constitution of Massachusetts adopted nearly one hundred years ago may be found this declaration of principles. "Wisdom and knowledge as well as virtue diffused generally among the body of the people being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties, and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of legislatures and magistrates in all future periods of this commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them, especially the University at Cambridge, public schools and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, rewards and immunities, for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections, and generous sentiments among the people." It seems to me that the Fathers had a more exalted notion of what the schools should be, and accomplish than have some of their children who live in more modern times.

It is refreshing to open the pages of our early New-England history and learn in what estimation the founders of our free communities held the free public school; to learn what they thought of the rights and duties of the State with reference to popular education, to find what were their opinions concerning the extent of that learning which the free schools should offer to all the children of the State, and to learn also what sacrifices of labor and wealth they were willing to make that all might obtain the most liberal culture the schools could give.

"In the year 1853, the Hon. SAMUEL A. ELIOT, the distinguished father of the present president of Harvard College, made an address before the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, on a complete system of education. It was considered to be an unanswerable argument in favor of higher education by the State. He says there should be not only some education for all, but every needed kind of education from which all may make their choice." "It was a great thing two centuries ago that New England should have done so much more in the days of her poverty and anxiety and weakness than the rest of the world to promote the general education of the people by public authority." "In Massachusetts provision was made more than two hundred years ago for a more extended course of instruction to be sustained by all the resources of the colony; and if we had retained the noble ambition of our Fathers such a purpose would never have slipped out of view or become unpopular." "Our

ancestors were right in thinking that the common schools were altogether inadequate as a means of public instruction." "The elementary school is the cradle, and the intellectual food furnished is fit for the infant occupant, but to claim that the State has done its whole duty in providing those only for its children, is establishing a very limited sphere indeed.

If it be the duty of the State, or if it be wise for it to provide education for the community, it is its duty, and it is wise for it to furnish as much as is needed for the preparation of that community for all the duties and occupations of life."

EDWARD EVERETT, in his famous plea for State aid for Harvard College says, "I will thank any person to show why it is expedient and beneficial in a community to make public provision for teaching the elements of learning and not expedient nor beneficial to make similar provision to aid the learner's progress toward the mastery of the most difficult branches of science and the choicest refinements of literature."

"No system of public education," says HUXLEY, "is worthy the name of State, unless it creates a great educational ladder with one end in the gutter and the other in the university." And these are opinions of the profoundest thinkers of modern times.

Our High Schools are the objects of severe criticisms. * But only let it be granted that the State is bound by its civil and moral obligations to establish and maintain these Schools;—that they form a necessary part of a whole in every common-school system;—that they stimulate the elementary schools into more enthusiasm and efficiency, and furnish a medium of communication between the elementary schools below and the superior above, and that they establish the means by which that equality of social rank may be maintained which renders Republican institutions possible, and then we are prepared with great amiability of spirit to admit that our High Schools are not perfect.

They are charged with attempting too much and accomplishing too little. That is, too many branches of learning are introduced into their courses of studies, and they are too superficially pursued. The criticism is only partially just, for while the variety of subjects introduced is not too great, still the learner may be required to master too many independent facts in connection with each one of them. The young pupil should be taught facts enough in connection with every subject pursued to furnish the occasion to his mind for a knowledge of those general principles upon which the science of the subject depends. This will enable him when he comes into the scientific schools to master the science itself. In addition to this, every student of facts or of science should be taught a method of study, and he should be trained to use the method. After this has been done, the subject may be dropped, in so far as school work is concerned, and the pupil left to pursue it to any extent he pleases alone.

Pupils should be made acquainted with methods of study and of acting, and should be trained to use the methods, then they may leave the guides of their youth and go on their way alone.

Such training will prepare one for citizenship in a self-governed State.

It is agreed that we must teach the rudiments of learning to all the children of the State, that they may have the elements of that prepara-

tion which will fit them to perform well their duties as citizens and christian men ; but it should never be forgotten that if the schools do no more than teach facts, they will never produce intelligent conscientious supporters of either the State or of the faith.

We must add to our elementary instruction that which has for its end a knowledge of general principles, and a right training of the faculties.

The institutions best adapted in our system of public instruction to teach this knowledge and give this training, are the Secondary Schools.

It is said also that we must omit from these schools the study of the classic languages, and all ornamental branches of learning.

But GLADSTONE and JOHN STUART MILL say that the study of the Latin and Greek should hold a prominent place in all secondary courses of instruction as they furnish a most important object of knowledge, and a most important means of mental culture. Language, in the better sense of the term, is that faculty of the mind by whose activity ideas and thoughts are associated with their established signs.

In a secondary sense it may be considered to be any system of signs by which ideas and thoughts are expressed. Keeping in mind the two senses in which the term language may be employed, we can see how it is that the use of language considered to be the signs of knowledge, will cultivate language considered to be a faculty of the mind.

The proper study of language considered to be a means of expression, leads the student first to study and know the thing to be named and described ; then, it requires him to obtain a practical knowledge of the language by which expressions are made ; then he is led to study the thoughts expressed by the language employed ; then, finally, he is led back to the mind which produced the thoughts.

After we have obtained our language by an experience in its use, we may study for a knowledge of those forms of words and for that arrangement of them, from which arises their grammar of language ; or we may study the style of the language from which arises its Rhetoric. But we cannot study either the grammar or Rhetoric of a language intelligently, without referring what is discovered to the minds of those who constructed the language and gave it its style. BUFFON says that the study of an author's style is the study of the man himself. From this it will follow that a philosophical study of language belongs to the most important work of the schools. It also follows that the study of ancient forms and styles of expression is a study of the history of ancient men and of ancient times by which alone they can be revealed to us.

No modern student ever entered into the spirit of the past except through the medium of ancient forms of expression. Remove the Greek and Roman languages from our courses of study and we have removed from the consideration of our students the only reliable records of Grecian and Roman civilization, and at the same time we have removed from them the possibility of obtaining that knowledge and of receiving that training which alone will enable them to have a full use of that portion of their own language derived from the Greek and from the Latin tongue.

If we omit the so-called ornamental branches from our instruction, then the refinements of our culture will be lost, and taste, that sensibility upon

whose proper training, skill in the arts as well as that love for the beautiful which creates a demand for the products of art, will remain an undeveloped power.

Drawing should be introduced from the first into the schools, for it has for its object that training of the hand and eye which lays a foundation for skill in the arts; it leads the mind to make a more careful examination of objects of study; it furnishes the best method of describing those objects that have form and size, it has a refining influence, by cultivating the taste; and it improves the morals, by exciting a love for the beautiful.

The training which skill in drawing implies, is that which every student will be glad to possess when he comes to take up the work of practical life.

Singing is an important branch of instruction. Training in this art is good for the reader to receive. It furnishes one with the ability to express emotions which can be fully expressed only in song, it provides a source of refined and elevated enjoyment, and when rightly conducted it has a tendency to purify the heart.

Finally, it is said we are educating some of our children too much; that for the masses very much education is an unfortunate possession, as it makes its possessor unhappy and discontented and renders him either too proud or too lazy to work. A true and thorough culture of the mind will have a tendency to make a man proud of himself and unwilling to spend his time and strength in doing that which the forces of nature or which the lower animals can be made to do as well as he; but a true culture never made a man vain, or unhappy, or shiftless. Ignorance is the parent of sloth and poverty and vice everywhere, while knowledge constantly stimulates the mind to acquire more knowledge; and an ability to think increases the desire for all that activity which furnishes an opportunity or an occasion for thinking.

The false customs of society may render some forms of labor unpopular, but this must not be charged to the schools, nor is it to be changed by depriving the laborer of the advantages of developing his own mental and spiritual nature.

Rank in human society has nothing to do with the right or the importance of human culture. Wherever there is a human being there should be furnished an opportunity for the highest culture and in this country, at least, we should not for a moment admit that the advantages of birth have anything to do in determining what are our natural rights.

The laboring classes of the country should be especially interested in supporting the secondary schools, for unless higher instruction is free alike to all, their own children may be deprived of it, and with its loss will be taken away the possibility of their holding equal rank with the more fortunate, even in our American society. In this country education is the great leveller.

Give a boy a good education, and, though wanting in wealth or in ancestral renown, he will take his place among his fellows, the peer of the richest and the noblest.

Our secondary schools, or high schools, are among the noblest of our institutions.

I rejoice when I visit them to find in their halls the rich and the poor

sitting side by side on the same seats receiving their mental training the same in kind and from the same free source, for I know that a few years of such training under such circumstances, will beget in them that state of the mind and of the heart, which will lead them in their future lives to think alike, and to have for each other a mutual sympathy and respect.

Every influence that has a tendency to withdraw support from our high schools or weaken public confidence in their character or to confuse the public mind in regard to the justice of maintaining them at public expense is hostile to the best interests of all classes, but it is especially *dangerous* to the vital interests of that large class that must depend on free public schools for their education.

The opulent should be interested in these schools, for by their influence on the education of the masses, the civilization of the State is exalted, life and property are more secure, and all the good ends for which human society was instituted will be more fully secured.

Neither private interest, nor political ambition, nor sectarian zeal, should move us to waver for an instant in the full and cordial support of those educational institutions established by the fathers, and which, in time of peace and of war, in times of plenty and of want, have been thus far so nobly maintained by their children.

It is the duty of the State to see to it that all the children of the State are thoroughly educated, no matter what opinions those who are opposed to our free schools may hold, for it is by the universal, free, and complete education of the people that all the problems of individual and social life are to be solved.

This paper elicited a spirited discussion in which the Hon. JOHN EATON, of the District of Columbia, Dr. E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, Dr. J. A. PAXSON, President of the Permanent Exhibition, the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, and EDWARD SHIPPEN took part.

It is regretted that the persons taking part in this discussion have not furnished abstracts of their remarks. Dr. WHITE contended for the right of the State to furnish higher education and that if the right of State education is admitted at all it is impossible to draw any invariable line beyond which the State cannot rightfully exercise its powers. Dr. PAXSON spoke earnestly on the failure of the schools to provide an education suitable for those entering the ordinary vocations of life and alluded to the great number of High-School graduates in the Philadelphia prisons. This allusion called forth earnest protests from the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM and EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, it was resolved, That a committee of three of which J. A. PAXSON and J. P. WICKERSHAM shall be two, be appointed to report at this meeting of the Association, the number of High-School graduates in the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia City Prison.

The question was further discussed by J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa, J. R. Sypher, of Pennsylvania, and the Hon JOHN EATON, of the District of Columbia. Dr. GEO. P. HAYS, of Pennsylvania, suggested that the committee should also inquire how many persons who ought to be in the penitentiary are not in it in consequence of possessing sufficient knowledge to enable them to evade the laws.

It was resolved on motion of EDWARD SHIPPEN, That J. L. PICKARD, of Iowa, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and J. A. PAXSON be appointed to examine the inmates of Moyamensing Prison and the Penitentiary of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania and to enquire and report the number who have entered into or graduated from Colleges, High Schools, Grammar Schools, or other Primary Schools.

This resolution was discussed by Dr. J. A. PAXSON, Prof. S. S. HALDERMAN, of Pennsylvania, the Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts, and Miss SARAH A. HUNTER, M. D., of Pennsylvania.

The President announced a part of the Committee on the Nomination of Officers. Also the following on Resolutions:—J. ORMOND WILSON, of the District of Columbia, LEMUEL MOSS, of Indiana, ELI T. TAPPAN, of Ohio, EDWARD DANFORTH, of New York, and WM. E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts.

The General Association adjourned to meet at the Academy of Music at 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8:20. The first part of the evening was devoted to a Concert by Philadelphia Amateurs.

The Rev. ROBERT E. THOMPSON delivered the following address on

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AS A STARTING-POINT IN EDUCATION.

My subject is one which has been suggested by my own experience; first as a student, and then as a teacher. It is "The Neighborhood as a Starting-Point in Education." I know it may be claimed, with some show of truth, that neighborhood and education have little to do with each other, and that the teacher's work is chiefly antagonistic to the narrowing influence of locality. It will be said that he has to lift his scholars to a larger and wider horizon in life, above the contractedness and the prejudices of town or village—or, as some would say, even of the nation itself—into the intellectual breadth and atmosphere of humanity. And it might be alleged that the very meaning, the chief purpose, of the National Association is to emphasize the fact that education should be freed from all local trammels and invested with the dignity of a national concern.

With the feeling represented by such an objection, I am very heartily in sympathy; and yet I think the objection a mistaken one. We will all

agree, I suppose, that the local influences of their own neighborhood exercise a great power over the rising generation, and take up a very large part of their time and their intellectual energy. At times, indeed, these become so engrossing as to interfere decidedly with their studies; and throughout the round year they are a power of distraction and dissipation, more or less sensibly felt. We would fain have it otherwise; and at times we have set ourselves to make it otherwise, and to insulate the school from the life that ebbs and flows around it, but rarely—I am bold to say—with marked success. The world of study, of thought, of books, into which you are trying to lead the boy's mind, is a very wonderful world. An acquaintance with it will be very profitable to him. But the world of actual life and experience, however narrow in itself, and narrowing in its influence, is an older and a more fascinating world, and you cannot wean his mind from it. He is more widely awake to the thing his eyes can see, though it be but a squirrel-hunt or a fight on the streets, than to the things which other people have seen for him, and have written down for his reading. Nor is he altogether wrong. The divine order of life in which he is placed, is an order of neighborhood and of local interests, first of all. It has bound us up in close and special relations with a *few* things. It has decreed that our life shall centre its affections around one spot of earth, and call it home. It has also decreed that in all the earlier years of our intellectual growth, before our abstract powers of thought and sustained contemplation have been developed, the things at hand to touch, sight, and feeling, shall possess a reality and a vividness, with which neither the written word nor the pictured page can compare. And the question for us, as teachers, is somewhat this:—Can we bring these two worlds—the world of books and study, and the world of life and experience—into any real and wholesome contact? Can we so manage that this exuberant and often troublesome interest in all things local and visible, shall make our scholars more earnest in their work, more devoted to their studies?

Every class has its own temptations, and one of those which beset the teaching class is to think of the child's education as little more than the result of school-work and book-work, and to ascribe to these a sort of omnipotence in the development of mind and the formation of character. But there is an unrecognized and equally-important part of his education, which goes on out of school, and deals with other books than the printed page, but is not less potent in moulding his future. Those of you who have read JEAN PAUL RICHTER's paradoxical but suggestive book, *Levana, or the Doctrine of Education*, will remember the amusing discourse in which he shows the *powerlessness* of education, since the teacher can put in but one word out of the thousands which reach and fill the child's ear, and since mere *words* are so feeble of influence in comparison with the living force of *action*. And all of us who have been able to watch the growth of our own minds since childhood, and have formed any estimate of the forces which inclined us this way or that in life, must have felt how great are these unrecognized forces in giving shape to life and destiny. It was the swinging of a church lamp that made GALILEO a physicist. JOHN RUSKIN ascribes his own passionate love of natural

beauty to the daily influence of a certain line of horizon, upon which his eye rested in childhood. Human beings, children especially, are not cased in rhinoceros hide. They absorb subtle influences at every pore. The shape and outline of the trees we saw first and oftenest, have become a part of ourselves, inseparable from our nature. I can still recall the new aspect given to life by the removal of a branch of a tree which grew in front of my childhood's home. It made all things seem more spacious, lightful, and harder in outline. It was like a transition from the romantic to the classic in art.

Here, then, is a great and peculiar activity of mind already going forward in the child, and calling for wise direction and wholesome care to keep it from becoming morbid or barren of good result. I venture to say that it is the teacher's duty to bring reflective intelligence to bear upon the child's intellectual life, and to throw new and clearer light upon those every-day objects around which his thoughts are gathering. He should teach him to ask "Why?" where he only asks "What?" and to gather up the confusing variety of experience into the unity of truth and principle. The school aims at making conscious thought clearer and more exact by various disciplines. Is there any reason why these disciplines should concern themselves with the remote in space and time, rather than with the near and the familiar? Should they not blend themselves with the boy's out-door thinking, rather than keep themselves aloof from it?

Do not understand me as bringing any wholesale charges against the existing schools, in this regard. I can only speak from my own experience of schools—public and private, civic and rural—on both sides of the Atlantic, and from the indications given by text-books in use elsewhere. There may be multitudes of schools—whole regions of them—which are all that could be desired in this regard, and through whose open windows no bright and thoughtful boy ever looks with an oppressive sense of the great gulf between the world God has made for him out of doors, and the world man has made for him in-doors—schools in which the cherished surroundings of the child's life are associated with his duties as a student-God grant that there may be many such. But, speaking from my own limited experience, I am moved to plead the case of the boy not so highly favored. What is he taught at school, to make him keep his eyes more open on his way to and from the school-house? or to disclose to him the open secrets of nature which lie on every side around him? or to turn his attention from the vulgar, frivolous, gossipy side of the social life of his neighborhood? His boyish interest in bird and beast is an interest altogether uncared for, or regarded as a nuisance when it leads him to turn the garret or the barn into a museum of dead or living objects,—“lumbering the house with trash,” as mother or housewife briefly describes it, until some day the trash is swept beyond his reach. His yearning to copy natural forms on paper runs its course without sympathy or direction. FRA LIPPO LIPPI describes this boyish fever:

I drew men's faces on my copy books,
Scrawled them within the Antiphonary's marge,
Joined legs and arms to the tall music notes,

Found nose and eyes and chin for A's and B's,
And made a string of pictures of the world
Betwixt the ins and outs of verbs and nouns,
On the wall, the bench, the door. The monks looked black.

But no "worthy prior" bids young America "daub away." His activity is simply the torment of his teacher, until it dies of neglect and scorn.

But the inner necessities of the school's course of instruction, as well as the necessities of the boy's nature, call for a change in the direction I have indicated. The demand first uttered by the great poet and school-master, JOHN MILTON, that boys be taught *things* rather than *words*, is one to which this age is very heartily responsive. For good or for evil, the educational drift of our times sets in that direction, and there is every reason to expect that those physical sciences, in which our material world is described, will form an ever larger part of the studies of our schools. Now it is beyond question that these sciences present a valuable and important means of culture to the actual investigator. To follow up data of nature from their seeming diversity to their unity in natural law, to trace the order which underlies the universe, to come into unceasing contact with those great and deep thoughts of God which we call facts,—this is a work which cannot but call forth grand qualities of mind and heart in the true man of science. It imparts lessons of caution, humility, and patience,—of reverence, for fact and love of the truth for its own sake,—as well as keen observation and correct reasoning. If we could extend the discipline which moulded FARADAY and AGASSIZ, to all classes of students, the results would be of priceless value. But are we likely to reach such a result through the study of scientific text-books? Such a book is a sort of intellectual funnel through which you may pour a mass of "scientific information" into the student, without ever bringing him into living contact with a single fact. Much less will it teach him anything of the *method* of true scientific work, or impart to him anything of the mental *discipline* acquired in pursuing that method. What was in other men true and substantial knowledge, becomes in him a mere phantasm of knowledge,—a heap of definitions and statements about facts, with which he has no practical acquaintance. Out of the best text-books—as experience has shown—a student may so learn chemistry as neither to know what sulphur is, nor to recognize it when shown to him.

The most widely used of these scientific text-books is the school geography, as it is also that which has had the longest tenure of place. It may be said to date from the interest awakened by the great geographical discoveries. When we look at the long series of these books which passes through the hands of each scholar—Primary, Secondary, Intermediate, School, and Physical—and when we recollect how much of the time in school is given to this study, we are surely justified in asking that results of an extraordinary value shall be forthcoming in return for such an outlay of time, money, and attention. And there is, no doubt, a certain amount of mental discipline to be obtained from this study. It is worth while to know that the earth holds in the universe a place very different from that which our sense-perceptions seem to

assign to it. It is worth while to have some acquaintance with the great outlines of the earth's formation, and its climatic conditions. And so much most of our students do learn from this study. But by far the greater part of what is memorized out of such works is a mere dead burden of facts, with little or no claim to the child's attention. As Mrs. BROWNING's *Aurora Leigh* describes the process,

.....I learnt the royal genealogies
Of OVIEDO, the internal laws
Of the Burmese Empire.....by how many feet
Mount Chimborazo outsoars Teneriffe,
What navigable river joins itself
To Lara, and what census of the year Five
Was taken at Klagenfurt—because she liked
A general insight into useful facts.

The facts are all right, and beyond dispute, but their study is not disciplinary. They are no better than a huge mountain of words, retained by feats of verbal memory; and I have a lively recollection of the mnemonic tricks by which I got my own hold upon the contents of *Mitchell's School Geography*. And the student—I am still speaking from experience—generally needs from three to five years to have them well washed out of his brain, to make room for something else. A gentleman offered to give one of our school boys a "quarter" if he would tell him all the capitals in Europe. It was earned—promptly. "Now tell me whether they are animals or vegetables, and I will give you another quarter." "Vegetables," was the reply.

I plead for neighborhood knowledge as a substitute for much of this useless, because unreal, world-knowledge. In political economy we make a distinction between the *extensive* agriculture which spreads a small capital over a large surface, and the *intensive* agriculture which concentrates a large capital on a small surface; and, under ordinary conditions, we hold that intensive agriculture is better and more profitable. I plead for the intensive tillage of this field of knowledge; let us take a small area and do it well. Take the neighborhood, and teach the children about what of the earth's surface they see and walk on. Start from the spot where the school-house stands, and run the lines of intellectual interest outward from that centre as far as you please.

No spot on the earth's surface is so devoid of interest as not to furnish a proper starting-point. Any man, whose eyes are open to scientific facts, will find anywhere the materials of suggestion and instruction. He will show you that your surroundings contain inexhaustible treasures of illustration.

Begin, for instance, with the *geological* history of your neighborhood. Show your boys the reason for the trend of the river or the dip of the rocks, and lead them back into that old world story of submergence and emergence, collision and erosion, which was once transacted where they stand. That heap of stones which lies above the court-house was carried hither by a glacier from the Canadian hills. That change from clay to sand, in 'Squire Brown's eight-acre lot, is the turning of a new page in nature, which you should help them to read.

But a still finer opening for this neighborhood-teaching is presented by the *natural history* of your neighborhood—its flora and its fauna. In this respect there can be no question of your resources. Your district cannot be more insignificant or unpromising than are many of those places which have been so lighted up by human intelligence that we are led into the mistake of supposing them exceptionally rich in natural treasures. That bleak stretch of Cromarty shore, which HUGH MILLER has made so familiar to us by his studies, and that country-side around Truro, which his friend THOMAS DICK made a centre of interest to naturalists and geologists, are no more important in themselves than thousands of places on the Scottish coast. That English parish which WHITE has immortalized in *The Natural History of Selborne*, is not a whit richer in bird beast and insect than are thousands of English parishes. It was the presence of what CARLYLE calls "a credible person with eyes," that made all the difference.

This study will bring you into the midst of the boy's dumb companions, who are at times the victims of his misdirected interest and energy. Books will not do for him the work of direct study. No genuine naturalist was ever book-made. He was awakened to his calling by the actual sight of the living things. And these you must study before you can lead him. Show him that around him lie the results of a great and world-wide process—the diffusion of plant and animal over the earth's surface, and the adornment of that surface in gay colors through the preferences and selections exercised by bird and bee. We owe it to Mr. DARWIN and his school that these studies are no longer a matter of specimen gathering, and sticking beetles on pins, and that a new breath of life has been given them through the discovery of age-long transformations going on in parallel lines in nature. Study nature in her new and broader unities of effect, and lead young hearts to love her as a mother. In no other field will the art of seeing and of learning be acquired so well; for here you must look not for what you would like to be true, but for what God has made to be true. It is a discipline for mental veracity and sincerity, of the greatest worth.

Along with this study of natural objects, should go the study of drawing. There are minds to which nature, when approached in the analytical method of botany and the kindred sciences, has few or no attractions. They tell you they do not care to pull things to pieces, blister them with Greek names, and cork them up in bottles. The mental processes are synthetical rather than analytical, and their entrance into sympathy with nature must be by "the Gate called Beautiful." To reproduce a natural object in the simplest and most unpretentious way, is to them a process of keen delight. But it is not for their sakes chiefly that this art of drawing should be taught in all our schools. We all need such training, in order that correct principles of taste may be universally diffused, and artistic culture be made as democratic as the spelling-book. It is of little use to train the few who have special aptitudes to produce beautiful things, unless you also train the whole community to enjoy and to demand such things, and to hate ugliness when offered in any shape.

As a student of social science, I should rejoice to see the study of natural history become universal among us, and that for two reasons.

The first is its wholesome and calming influence upon the minds engaged in it. We are living in such haste, in these latter days, that the preservation of social sanity seems to grow more difficult with every year. Societary circulation goes on with increasing rapidity, and the power to resist and to overcome its restless and morbid tendencies seems to be on the decline. Nobody except a few Quakers, a few poets, and a few naturalists, "studies to have a quiet mind." Of the forces to which we might look for help in this matter, the chief is religion; but even religion is becoming a matter of high pressures, heated atmospheres, controversial bitterness, and restless impatience. The rise of a hearty and general interest in the patient and peaceful processes of nature—of a sympathy with her quiet moods of calm and sunshine, might help to cool our social fever, and to diffuse a scientific sabbath through the thought of the community. The actual increase of insanity in American society shows that we cannot go on as we have been going, unless we are prepared to reconstruct society inside the walls of the insane hospital.

My second reason is the elevation of the farming class through the retention of the best and brightest boys on the farm. At present, by a most unnatural selection, that class is drained of many of its most promising elements by a sort of emigration to other industries. The hard times have checked this, but it is, in America, the dominant tendency, and every census shows a larger ratio of city to country residents. Now the schools, as I believe, are rather helping than hindering this drain. They awake in the farmer's boy tastes and ambitions which he sees nothing on the farm to satisfy. Agriculture comes to mean, to him, distasteful and unintelligent toil, and all his aspirations go out toward city life. And the very men who should be the life of this class, and the story of whose achievements should be the story of its advances are drafted into our counting-houses, and into the overcrowded ranks of our professions. A partial remedy at least, for this state of things might be found in awakening among our farmers' sons the taste for natural history. All the wonders which are connected with the lad's every-day life,—all the open secrets of the farm-yard, the road-side, and the field,—the geology of the neighborhood in its relation to the kinds and qualities of the soils,—its native flora and fauna, and their places in the zoölogy and botany of his country,—the history of the domestic animals and plants, the meteorology of the district in relation to its agriculture, and whatever else may help him to feel that all around him lie objects worthy of study and observation, should be taught him sooner or later. He would then begin to think of his home, rather than the city, as associated with the escape from a narrow and sordid horizon which education offers. He would find the life of the farm become first tolerable and then interesting. He would look forward with delight to years spent in contact with objects, each of which had become a gate that opened at his touch, and led him into wide fields of intellectual effort and pleasure. The country would again become the darling of her brightest children, when they would not only see the outer, work-a-day garments she wears, but catch a glimpse into her mother-heart of forethought and wisdom.

Lastly, this neighborhood teaching should include instruction in the elements of *Social Science*. The *political* life of the nation and of the state touches the land at every point, and at every point their children should understand and welcome the touch. The American school that is to command the approval of our public opinion, must awaken in its pupils the love of that righteousness, which is, as PLATO says, of the essence of the state. It must develop in them the free consent to law, order, and authority, and the attachment to their native land, beyond all party ties or allegiance. And this great work could not be better begun than with the explanation of what goes on in every county-town of the land. The court, with its grand and petit juries, the election day and the solemn responsibilities of the voter, the town-meeting with its democratic modes of procedure, present a large portion of the machinery of government, to the very sight of the children. And in the school, if anywhere, those lessons must be taught which shall save the coming generations from the slavery of party and its half-truths, and secure their allegiance to their country and to the truth.

The school cannot afford to omit this teaching. If it does so, others will take up the task. HON. EBENEZER BLATHERSKITE has gathered his class in the town-square, and is giving lessons free to all who will come. The sum and substance of his teaching is, that the great contention which has divided the American people since the very first period of their united action, is simply a struggle between the pure patriots who have rallied to the support of BLATHERSKITE, and the knaves and rogues who dare to differ from him. In the lessons given by such men, this great war of principle between national authority and local interest, is reduced to a paltry squabble between the "ins" and the "outs."

The first lessons of *economic science* form an equally needful branch of neighborhood education. I do not mean that the teacher is to clear up our ideas on hard and soft money, or on the comparative merits of treasury-notes and bank-notes. But, whichever side of the recent controversy any of my hearers may have taken, he must have been struck with the ignorance of first principles, which characterized *those who took the other side*. Their ideas, you observed, were never clear on the great primary questions which lay behind the current controversy; and this shows that there is a field for teaching, quite independent of the points on which we differ.

It is more than a century since there came to Philadelphia an Irish refugee, who became a prominent publisher in this city, and wrote on this subject of *Social Science*, as well as on others. As he used to walk the streets in those days, holding his little son by the hand, he would point out to him the lessons of *Social Science* which were to be seen on our streets. That little boy is now in his eighty-sixth year, and he is the most widely known of all our citizens. His books speak to the people of Europe in eight languages; his doctrines are taught in European universities, and his authority is alleged in the debates of European parliaments and legislative bodies. HENRY C. CAREY's studies in *Social Science* began on the streets about his home; and in the streets or farms around every American school-house lie all the materials needed for the study of eco-

nomical science. I speak from experience as a disciple of Mr. CAREY, and a teacher of this branch of science, when I say that the dullest minds will be awakened to an interest in this subject, when they are shown that its principles are illustrated on every street and wharf of this city.

It may be objected that special advantages for such a study are presented by such a city as this—after London, the second manufacturing city of the world, and favored with a variety of interests and an interchange of services such as is to be seen nowhere else on this continent. But the objection is mistaken. The Philadelphia of that day, to which I have referred, was a straggling town of less than fifty thousand people, along the bank of the Delaware. It had few manufactures, and little European commerce, while it enjoyed a considerable trade with the West Indies. Yet on its streets this subject was studied with a success which has no parallel. And any other locality will serve the purpose as well. The story of the settlement of your neighborhood, the transition from the lands first occupied to those which were afterwards taken up, the local variations in prices and wages, the growth in variety of occupation, the starting the first bank and its effects on business, the effects of a manufacture begun in the vicinity, the growing rapidity of interchanges, and the increased division of labor—these are the elements out of which the whole science is built up, and these elements are present everywhere.

The children of our schools need these lessons in economic science. The industrial life of the community is continually presented to them on its selfish side, as the story of individual gains and losses. The very "sums" in your school arithmetics keep that aspect before their minds, until they come to think of business as a huge scramble for money and money's worth. Economic science, when it is of the right sort, turns their minds from the thought of *gain* to the thoughts of *use*. It presents our industrial life more truthfully as an interchange of services—as a gain all round, through the friendly coöperation of each and all. Now, if ever the greedy and selfish spirit is to be banished out of our business life, it must be through the thoughts of men turning from *gains* to *uses*. "The Kingdom of Heaven is a Kingdom of Uses," EMANUEL SWEDENBORG tells us. Although no disciple of that remarkable man, I feel every day the truth of that saying. The Kingdom of Heaven will have come indeed, when every man toils in his place gladly and unselfishly, rejoicing in the uses which his work subserves, and doing it for the sake of those uses.

I claim, therefore, for the American school yet another lofty function. It is to combat the greedy, selfish, devouring spirit which threatens to take possession of the business life of America. It is to call men up to the level of thoughts at once truer and loftier, and to infuse a new motive into the industrial activities of the modern world.

Here we come upon the great social obstacle to sound and thorough scholarship—an obstacle encountered in this country more than in any other. The spirit of greed, of Mammon, of money-worship, is utterly antagonistic to the spirit which awakens in men the love of the truth, the search after truth for its own sake. Either the schools must kill that spirit, by coöperating with religion and all the other wholesome influences, or it will kill the schools. It has made its first attack upon them. It has de-

manded that they be, one and all, turned into workshops, where boys are to learn a trade. To-day it asks that the studies which fit men for their duties as men and citizens, shall give half the room to the training which fits them to become carpenters and bricklayers. To-morrow it will show itself to be the cuckoo in the thrush's nest, and will claim the whole curriculum as its own. You are face to face with your chief enemy, Ladies and Gentlemen; and I hope that the united strength of your Association will be employed to resist the general introduction of such a system. It has its proper place in houses of refuge and reform schools, not in the public schools of the land.

It is our higher institutions which have heretofore suffered the most from this money-worshipping spirit. They cannot raise the standard of age required for admission, because Young America must be making money by the time when Young Germany, though far poorer in this world's goods, is leaving the gymnasium to proceed to the university. For this reason, we have, as President ELIOT of Harvard told us a few years ago, no true universities in America, for our best are but half-way between a gymnasium and a university. The Johns-Hopkins University in Baltimore, we hail as the omen of a brighter and more scholarly future for our whole country.

As I look back upon what I have written, Ladies and Gentlemen, I fear that many of my statements and criticisms must seem to you unduly sweeping and dogmatic, and even impertinent in the censure of long-established methods of instruction. I look to-night upon the faces of men who were in the harness before I was out of school, and who have given to this great work the energy of devoted and well-spent lives. Let me submit all that I have said to your more experienced judgments, while I assure you that I have not laid before you anything which has not been the outcome of prolonged thought and earnest feeling on the subject. I have confidence that you will welcome any well-meant effort to contribute to the perfection of that Public-School System, of which you are the foremost representatives, and of which all Americans are justly proud.

After the rendering of four more pieces of music, the President announced in full the

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATION OF OFFICERS.

W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.

E. E. WHITE, Indiana.

J. L. PICKARD, Iowa.

M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.

MISS GRACE C. BIBB, Missouri.

ALEX. HOGG, Texas.
 REUBEN McMILLAN, Ohio.
 EDWARD A. SPRING, New Jersey.
 DR. J. DORMAN STEELE, New York.
 DAVID W. HARLAN, Delaware.
 J. H. PEAY, Jr., Virginia.
 A. L. WADE, West Virginia.
 HENRY BARNARD, Connecticut.
 Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
 EDMUND J. JAMES, Illinois.
 A. M. GAMWELL, Rhode Island.
 W. P. HAISLEY, Florida.

A vocal quartette closed the evening's exercises.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 30th, 1879.

The meeting was led in the Lord's Prayer by the Rev. A. D. MAYO.
 The President read the following letters:—

EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

To the President of the National Educational Association.

DEAR SIR:—As the vacation of our Institution deprives us of the opportunity and pleasure of exhibiting to your Association the methods of instructing the pupils, with the aid of their presence, permit me, should it be desirable, in the briefest possible way to state what is special in our educational work, and some of its important results.

The first systematic instruction of the Blind was commenced in Paris, by VALENTIN HAUY, in 1784; the first in England, in 1790; in the United States, in 1831. There are now 29 Institutions in this country.

The Pennsylvania Institution has over 200 inmates, some of them employed as teachers of others.

The great object of all such institutions is to enable the blind to become, as far as possible, self-supporting. In addition to the usual branches of the grammar and high schools, they are instructed in music and handicraft. Some of them are qualified for teachers; many of them instructors on the pianoforte, organists in churches, vocalists, and piano tuners; and a still larger number acquire some useful handicraft. Whatever may be their success, with few exceptions they all become better fitted for the battle of life, for the duties of citizenship, and for rational enjoyment.

The loss of sight has important compensations. The touch is more sensitive, not naturally, but by habitual use; the hearing is better and the memory more retentive. The special apparatus for instruction is adapted to the marvellous and exquisite touch of the finger. Books are printed in relief. Young pupils seldom fail to learn the raised print. A deaf and blind boy taught in this institution, read the entire Bible and

twenty other volumes through with his finger. Maps are prepared with tangible outlines for rivers and boundaries. States have square holes for the reception of type figures. Writing-cards have grooves in which the pupil writes with a lead pencil.

Much of the instruction is oral. The living voice of the teacher with text-book in hand, reads and explains the subject for the subsequent recitation which is well remembered the following day.

Music has a great charm for the blind. Nearly all desire to learn it, and their happiness is increased thereby. They are usually cheerful while in school or at work. Occupation is a necessity.

Many cases of distinguished blind persons could be named, if the limit of this letter permitted. The following table gives the probable results of the education of the Blind in the United States as reported to the Convention of Superintendents and Instructors, which met in Ohio in August, 1878. Of the graduates, 16 became superintendents of blind institutions; 5, of Orphan Asylums; 214 became teachers of the blind; 10, teachers in public schools; 26, students and graduates of Colleges and Theological Seminaries; 34, ministers; 3, lawyers; 12, authors; 6, medical students and physicians; 65, lecturers and agents; 299, teachers of music and vocalists; 69, church organists; 125, piano tuners; 12, composers and publishers of music; 19, teachers of handicraft; 918, employers and workers in handicraft; 277, storekeepers and traders; 45, owners of real estate; 760, females, at housework and at home, on sewing-machines, crocheting, plain sewing, etc.; 78, in "Homes" of employment; 118, imbecile or incapacitated; 431, unknown. There were remaining in all the Institutions, August, 1878, 2,292; whole number of admissions from the beginning, 8942.

Very Respectfully,

WILLIAM CHAPIN,

Principal Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind.

Philadelphia, July 28, 1879.

PHILADELPHIA, July 29, 1879.

Hon. John Hancock, President National Educational Association.

MY DEAR SIR:—On behalf of the authorities of this University, I beg leave to extend to the Association which you represent, a cordial invitation to hold the Session appointed for Thursday morning in the Chapel of our Classical and Scientific Building. At the close of the session, or at such time during its continuance as shall be convenient to the Association, several of the Professors will be present to exhibit the various laboratories, lecture-rooms, and collections.

The red and the blue cars on Walnut St., pass the University.

Truly Yours,

GEORGE F. BARKER,

for the Provost.

CLINTON, CONN., July 29, 1879.

John Hancock, President National Educational Association.

I greatly regret that severe sickness in my family deprives me of the expected pleasure of joining your meeting.

B. G. NORTHROP.

PHILADELPHIA, July 29, 1879.

To the President National Educational Association.

SIR:—I enclose evidence of a new system now being taught to classes of teachers and pupils of the Public Schools in Latin and German at Public-School buildings, by permission of the Board of Public Education. To all who may wish it I will give such explanation of its working as may be possible now where the Public Schools and with these the classes are closed; particularly, if they will favor me with a card naming beforehand their coming.

I am, Sir, most respectfully your obedient servant,

CH. C. SCHAEFFER,
125 N. 17th St.

The Rev. G. P. HAYS moved to accept the invitation to meet in the chapel of the University of Pennsylvania. On motion of W. D. HENKLE, Mr. HAYS's motion was so amended that thanks were tendered for the invitation but on account of the inconvenience its acceptance would cause the invitation was declined.

ANDREW J. RICKOFF, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cleveland, Ohio, then read the following paper on

A READJUSTMENT OF COMMON-SCHOOL STUDIES NECESSARY.

As a consequence of the war the value of education was greatly and justly enhanced in public esteem. Never had a great truth been more deeply impressed upon a people than that the Common School is the only safeguard of liberty and good government. It is not strange, therefore, that during and after the war the devotion of the people to the cause of universal education should manifest itself in greatly-increased expenditures for school purposes. Times were prosperous, the burdens of taxation were little felt, and States and cities poured out money lavishly for the erection of school-houses, for apparatus, and all that in popular esteem is held to be most desirable for the promotion of the sacred cause.

When the *alarm* had subsided, *reaction* was inevitable, and when markets became stagnant, manufactories were closed, internal improvements were arrested and large numbers of men and women had been thrown out of business, the taxes became onerous and every cause of taxation was resented. It was quite natural, when this sudden pause came in the race for wealth, that men should open their eyes to the enormous growth and development of the educational machinery. It was to be expected that some, even among thoughtful men, should question whether all this was necessary to the ends for which common schools were originally established. It needed only the suggestion of doubt from a few of the earlier friends of the public schools, to set the lighter and more inflammable spirits in a blaze. From Maine to California the schools, especially of the cities, were subject to severe criticism and their managers were denounced as having diverted them from the purposes for which they were originally established. Metropolitan journals and village newspapers united in raising questions whether the increased

expenditures had been attended by any substantial improvement of the schools within the last generation or two, and in making complaint of the neglect of this or that fundamental branch of study. It was said that the essential elements in the education of the children of the poor and laboring classes were neglected for the higher and more ornamental studies. The crowded course was arraigned as being unfavorable to a true development of mind, hostile to real scholarship, destructive to the health of children and oppressive to teachers. It is difficult to enumerate all the counts in the indictment against the schools of to-day. Many have joined in one charge or another but there seems to be no general agreement upon any particular one, except perhaps the last, viz.—the overcrowded programmes of study and the neglect of the more important branches of a good English education. There are not a few teachers and school officers who have raised the question among themselves, whether there is not some ground for this criticism.

In this paper I propose to speak especially on this point. If there be any school man here who has found time for the reading which is necessary to form the mind, cultivate a taste for good reading and direct the attention of his pupils to that which is best, if any who have found time for a thorough, systematic, and continuous practice of their pupils in the use of their mother-tongue, if any who have found opportunity to give that instruction about the laws and institutions of our country which the citizen most needs, if there be any who have not been put to their wit's end to harmonize the claims of the older studies with what they are ready to concede to be the just demands of the new,—if there be any such teachers here, they will not sympathize with me when I say that this charge is true. The programmes of our schools are overcrowded. The best conditions of mental, moral, and physical development are not afforded even in our best schools; the fundamental branches of a good English education are neglected. Thoughtful educators have felt the truth more than their critics, but they differ from them as to what the fundamental branches of a good English education are, and hence they differ from them as to the remedies which are to be applied. For myself, I avow the opinion that it is not the addition of the new branches, but the growth of the old, which has caused the chief difficulty.

The youngest of our teachers will scarcely credit me when I say that the work required in the study of Reading, Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography in our best schools of to-day is from five to ten times greater than it was in the same studies and in the best schools of the first part of this century. I know of no better means of proving to them the truth of this assertion than by an appeal to some accounts which we have of the schools of Boston at that period. Whatever their faults may have been, there is little reason to doubt that they were, even at that time, at least as efficient as any schools of the country. That we may understand the course of study and have the situation clearly before us, it is well to keep in mind the fact that from the time the children left the dame's schools, that is little Primary pay schools, and entered the public schools, the education of those who were destined for a liberal course of study was distinct and separate from that of those who proposed for themselves ap-

prenticeship to the trades. For the former there were two Latin Schools in which Latin and Greek were the only things taught. If the pupils needed to be taught writing or reading, or wished to learn arithmetic, they had to get their instruction in these branches elsewhere. Besides these two Latin Schools there were two *Writing Schools*. The course in these schools was very brief indeed. Writing and arithmetic were the principal studies. Although reading and spelling were also taught in them, this instruction was only incidental, "being carried on," we are told, "not attended to," while the teachers were making or mending pens preparatory to the regular writing lesson.

To the woman of the present day it may be of interest to learn that at this period the only schools in the city to which girls were admitted were kept by teachers of the public schools, between the forenoon and afternoon sessions. This of course must be understood to have been a private enterprise on the part of the public school masters.

In 1790 there was a reform in the school system, and the reformed course of study is what I want to get before you but you will not appreciate the reform, nor understand the programme unless you know the agents by which it was effected, and know something of the organization adopted.

In the year last named twelve citizens were added to the Board of Selectmen for the sole purpose of attending to the schools. Of these there were three doctors of divinity, three distinguished physicians, one doctor of laws, two judges, two who had been or were thereafter in the United States Senate, and one who was afterward Governor of the State. I mention these facts to show that probably all was attempted in the re-organization which was then thought to be possible. If such a Board would not at least aim to make the curriculum of the schools all that it might be made, in vain should we expect to find a Board that would.

In order that room might be made for girls, two other schools were established called Reading Schools. Each one of these was placed in a building with a Writing School, and the pupils attended them alternately, one in the morning, the other in the afternoon. This was the plan of organization. What was the course of study?

I quote from Mr. FOWLE's biographical sketch of the life of CALER BINGHAM, who was one of the schoolmasters of the time. Mr. FOWLE was himself a pupil of the schools, probably from 1800 to 1810. One regulation required that the reading master should teach spelling, accent, and the reading of prose and verse and to instruct the children in English Grammar, epistolary writing, and composition. "Another regulation required the writing masters to teach "writing, arithmetic, and the branches usually taught in town schools, including vulgar and decimal fractions." The books used in the Reading Schools were WEBSTER's Spelling-Book, the Holy Bible, WEBSTER's Third Part, and the Young Ladies' Accidence. The Young Ladies' Accidence was a treatise upon English Grammar containing about sixty pages. The Children's Friend and MORSE's Geography were *allowed*, not *required*, and newspapers were to be introduced occasionally at the discretion of the master. In the Writing Schools no books were used save the copy book and a manuscript for recording the "sums" done by the pupil.

A teacher of the present day might find much to do under this simple course and with the few text-books prescribed; but what did the masters of that day find to do; That is, how was the course of study construed, what use was made of the books? Mr. FOWLE tells us that in the Reading Schools the practice was for every child to read one verse in the Bible or a short paragraph of the Third Part; and that while one class was reading, the other studied the spelling lesson. This lesson was spelled in turns, so that, the classes being large, each boy seldom spelled more than one or two words. In Grammar, the custom was to recite six or more lines *once a fortnight*, and to go through the book three times before any application of it was made to parsing."

In the Writing Schools it was ordered that the children should begin to learn arithmetic at eleven years of age. Up to that age all that the pupils did in a whole forenoon or afternoon was to write one page of a copy book not exceeding ten lines. "When they began to cipher, it rarely happened that they performed more than two sums in the simplest rules. These were set in the pupil's manuscript 'by the teacher' and the operation was then recorded by the pupil." * * * "Such writing and ciphering, however, were too much for one day, and boys who ciphered did so only every other day." Dr. MORSE's School Geography was occasionally read by the highest class in the Reading Schools. As to the rule requiring the introduction of newspapers and the writing of compositions, Mr. FOWLE says "The misfortune was, that the rule was entirely neglected, as was that requiring composition to be taught in connection with English Grammar. The probability is that for twenty years, not a newspaper was read in any school, nor a word written."

Such was the course of study and such the practice under it in those schools of which it has been said: "There is reason to believe that more and better work was done by our schools in the early days of the Republic than is accomplished now."

A comparison between the amount of work required in the old schools and the new, may be aided by reference to the text-books used then and now. We must touch this point very briefly. Let us first look at the arithmetics. We have seen that in the early days no book was used except the pupil's manuscript which has already been spoken of. When the printed book was first introduced, it was designed only to take the place of the manuscript. It gave the rules which had previously been written out by the teacher or copied by the pupil, and the sums to be done,—that was all. In DANIEL ADAMS's Arithmetic, tenth edition, published in 1817, space is left for the solution of all the examples, thus completely adopting it as a substitute for the manuscript which it had superseded. This was one of the most popular, if not the most popular arithmetic of its day. It was a book of 204 pages, and in consequence of the vacant space left for solutions, the matter contained in it was equivalent to not more than ninety pages of the arithmetics now published. To show wherein these books have grown we may notice the number of pages appropriated to two or three of the principal subjects treated of in three different editions of this work, published, respectively, in 1817, 1842, and 1860. These editions, in the order named, treat of percentage

and interest in 10, 20, and 45 pages; of decimals in 11, 25, and 21 pages; and of vulgar fractions in 1, 23, and 25 pages; and to show how the matter has grown to the page, I may mention the fact that though the "Rule of Three" has little more than held its own, having three more problems in the last than in the first edition cited, the number of pages has been actually reduced from 24 to 11.

Next let us look at the Grammar. The mighty growth of the treatise on this subject cannot be duly estimated at a glance; but we can give it no more. Grammar was treated of within the limits of forty-five pages of DILLWORTH'S Spelling-Book at the beginning of the century. It grew next to sixty pages in the "Young Ladies' Accidence," but now it has swelled to three or four hundred pages, the standard size of the grammars of the present day.

You will observe that I have made no allusion to the two or three books now required in each of these branches, nor to the doubling of the work required of pupils by the use of the blackboard for giving original problems, sentences for parsing, and analysis, etc., etc.

But what is the kind of material which has thus been added to these text-books? In arithmetic, what was formerly only a series of "sums" to be performed under precise direction of rules, each aided by at least one model example, has grown to be a science, every rule of which fully developed, and every principle demonstrated. The problems have grown more intricate and new subjects have been introduced to meet the demands of the more complicated business transactions of the day. The old books are their own witnesses to the fact that they gave no explanations, and as we are told by SALEM TOWN, LYMAN BEECHER, WARREN BURTON, WILLIAM B. FOWLE, all indeed who have given us any information on the subject, the teachers never explained anything, the pupils in fact were not expected to understand anything, all they were required to know was how to do the sums.—In Grammar, instead of the simple catechism to be found in DILLWORTH'S Spelling-Book, we have multiplied definitions, logical analyses and subtle distinctions are not unfrequently attempted which would put to his mettle even a first-class metaphysician.

Were it only for the eight- or tenfold growth of the work required of our children in these branches and the more rigorous exactions made upon them by our severer methods of instruction and examination, we might well pause to question whether we have not, in some degree at least, sacrificed the conditions of healthy exercise of mind and of sound mental development; whether, in the attempt to cultivate the higher powers of an immature organism we are not deceiving ourselves by a mere seeming exercise of reason where memory alone is active, and we are not thus losing time for right discipline and for the acquisition of really useful knowledge. I might say real knowledge.

But we are not yet done with additions to the course of study. While Arithmetic and Grammar have grown so enormously, two branches, almost entire, have been added to the programme. I refer to Geography, which as we have learned was only occasionally read by the highest class in the Boston schools; and History, which had not then been spoken of even as a possible study.

Still we are not done. I have mentioned only the studies which have now received the sanction of popular opinion. Each one, as it was introduced, had to fight its way. Even Arithmetic, in the beginning of the century, was thought unnecessary for girls, and was forbidden to be taught even to boys in the day schools of many towns of New England. You will please to remember that in the early days of the colonies, the statute required the establishment in every town of a school in which only writing and reading should be taught. Grammar had a still more unwelcome reception. Geography was thought an accomplishment, and History, it was said, could be read at home. These branches, however, have now obtained general recognition as the essentials of a common-school course. But there are yet others which have a pretty firm foothold in the graded schools of the principal towns and cities, whose schools are ever spoken of as models.

Many years ago, it was found that a study of books alone left dormant the observing faculties and that, in consequence, the common intelligence of the child, by which I mean intelligence regarding things about him was left uncultivated. The best scholars were very frequently found to be most ignorant of what they most needed to know. The country lad who had but a few months' schooling in the winter, and the street gamin who had no schooling at all went abroad with senses keenly alive to nature and the affairs of the world about them. The book-worm who had been so highly esteemed for his virtues at school, went through the world, but was not of the world. Perceiving this, if a man did not intend to send his boy to college, or as it was said to "make a scholar of him," he had some reason to put him to his trade, even before the limited common-school course of the day was completed. Some knowledge of physics, chemistry, physiology, botany, and other branches of natural history would have been invaluable to him, but they were to be studied only from books, with long, hard names in them, and by a method which was new and strange to him. They were, therefore, supposed to be inaccessible to the child till he had completed all the other branches of what was called a good English education. Hence he went to work totally ignorant of every science which lay at the basis of his chosen vocation. It was not then understood, or it was understood by very few, that, within certain limits, nature opens her secrets to the observant senses, more readily than through the medium of the best books. It was not generally known that very much of these sciences may be learned to best advantage while the child is young and his perceptive faculties, if rightly directed, are keenly alive to every impression from the natural world, and that, if these faculties are permitted to go without proper exercise in early life, they are stunted in their growth so that in after years they are weak and inactive. It seems not to have been perceived that one cannot become even a good reader who has not considerable knowledge of the common things about him, a knowledge which is pre-supposed in the most common writings, especially those of the present day; and that, to one who has not taken instruction from the world of nature and art, many books are sealed, even though written for popular use. But one after another these facts began to disturb the minds of teachers. Accordingly step after step was taken

though in a desultory way, whereby the process of education was improved. But what had been begun without order shortly became a system on the theory that all that goes to make up the knowledge of the commonly intelligent child touches upon and sometimes extends pretty far into the domain of every science. It was perceived that his attainments show his kinship to the philosopher, linguist, statesman, poet, artist, naturalist; that as his body grows in strength and symmetry every faculty of his mind is developed by appropriate excitation and exercise, not in succession but simultaneously. His mind grows as his body in "concentric circles," not in a few radiant lines. In recognition of these truths the obvious facts of natural history, physics, chemistry, geology, astronomy, have already been included in the curriculum of the best primary and Grammar Schools, the necessary limitation being that these facts shall lie within the observation and ready understanding of the child and that no generalizations be attempted until the number of facts accumulated demand it.

Thus far I have confined myself to the history of the growth of the common-school studies. I have not attempted to account for it. Whether the increased size of the text-books in Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography is owing to the ambition of authors or the competition of booksellers; or in answer to the wants of modern times or to the demands of teachers, does not concern us to know, inasmuch as it is evident that it is the result of no forecast, no carefully-devised plan, no wise adaptation of means to the great end which must ever be the harmonious development of the faculties, the proper direction of human energy and the preparation of men and women for the duties and responsibilities of life. It would certainly matter little what variant caprices may have led the son, grandson, and great-grandson of a first settler to add promiscuously here and there a kitchen, a dining-hall, a parlor, a reception-room, a conservatory, a music room, a tower and what not to the original log cabin, building miscellaneously of brick, wood, stone, birch bark, or anything which chance means of transportation might bring within their reach. Whatever the thought of each one might have been, the result would be inconvenient, unsightly, and unstable. The comparison may be unjust in some respects, but it illustrates pretty well how one accession after another has been made to our course of study, each with little regard to what had been done before and still less concern for what might be needed in the future.

Please to observe that in this comparison I am speaking of the curriculum of the schools, not the resultant education of the individual or the nation. Other factors than the instructions of the teacher enter into the education of the child. The family, the world, the age, carry on their education, at equal step with that of the schools. Then, too, the mind is a living organism which appropriates what is suited to aid its growth and development and rejects much of that which is pernicious. Thus nature and circumstance go far to modify the practical results of our educational systems but the curriculum of the schools is exactly what we make it. Here the comparison holds good.

But this strange structure, built without plan or central purpose, spread

beyond the bounds to which the nature of the site should limit it, and in parts carried so high that the foundations are crushing under the weight, this structure must receive further additions, additions made indispensable by the scope of modern thought, by the multiplied, complicated, and ever-varying requirements of the market and the workshop, and by the inexorable demands of sovereign citizenship. Furthermore it is incomplete where it was supposed to have been perfect long ago. We have lately heard much said of the reading in our schools. Let me say here, parenthetically, that those who make the charge that it is inferior to what it was one, two, or three generations ago, only show their ignorance of what it has been. But I must say, nevertheless, that reading in the schools has never been what it should be. It is the reading of words, not thoughts. To rattle the shells, not to pick the kernels of thought, seems to be the ultimate purpose of students and teachers alike; hence readers do not bring themselves into contact with the mind of the author. School reading fails to attract the pupil to higher planes of thought and association. One who has learned to read, may through books extend his acquaintanceship indefinitely, he is not confined to his fellow-workmen, nor by geographical limits, but he will choose for his acquaintances only those who become congenial associates, whether the medium of intercourse between them and him be by tongue or type. A man will hardly read up to the level of what he would listen to with pleasure if the living author were present to talk with him,—hence his books will be, intellectually and morally, little better than his living companions. What we need in our schools is such reading as will so discipline the mind that the reader will take pleasure in the effort to understand what he reads, put him *en-rapport* with good writers and cultivate a taste for,—nay more, form a habit of reading that which will inform the mind and purify the heart. Then there is the companion piece to reading and the supplement to that cultivation of the observing faculties and of the common intelligence of which I have already spoken at some length. I refer to the ready, easy, and accurate use of the English language. Who will not admit that there is very much to be done in this direction? That we have been struggling for years to give such instruction and training a suitable place in our programme indicates the judgment of educators as to its necessity, and that they have failed indicates that they have too much to do already. President Eliot was not far from right when he said, a few days ago, "I recognize but one mental acquisition as an essential part of the education of a lady or gentleman, namely, an accurate and refined use of the mother-tongue." It is this that gives to men mastery over books, insight into the affairs of human life and directive power among men. If anywhere, in the world, this command over language is necessary, it is here in America where principles too subtle for expression in the language of the marketplace wield the power of kings.

But stepping only a little beyond the bare necessities which thoughtful educators have insisted on, let us speak of two subjects which, with nearly equal unanimity, are urged upon our attention. I may first mention a knowledge of our form of government and of the principles on which it rests. Loyalty to a party is possible to those who are totally ignorant of

the first principles of good government. The cries *Vive l'Empereur* or *la Commune* are better definitions of principles than huzzahs for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" or "Little Van," but as we have seen again and again the former are as easily exchangeable as the latter by the masses, whose political opinions are summed up in fidelity to one leader or another. Loyalty to a constitution is possible only to those who comprehend the spirit of that constitution. Hence we need to teach not only the form of government under which we live, but lead our pupils to see and admire, at least as from afar off, the wisdom of the fathers in casting it into that form which has preserved it to this day amidst fratricidal war and social revolution. Nor is this all that ought to be done in this direction. He knows little of the functions of government who knows only its forms, the powers of the several departments, and the checks which they exercise upon one another. There are other lessons more easily understood, more interesting, and more important to be learned—for instance that government cannot create wealth nor interfere with its accumulation or distribution without disaster to every interest, public and private. Even children may be taught that interference with the rights of property or labor, whether by government, trades-unions, or associations of capitalists must in the end result in the subversion of personal and political liberty and finally prepare the way for anarchy and absolutism.

You may call this political economy if you choose, it is political economy, but it is far easier to comprehend these lessons than it is to understand much of the Grammar and Arithmetic which is taught in the "Thirteenth grade" of this city or the "Second Grammar Class" in Boston. They would, I believe, serve much better as means of mental discipline; and few will question their being very much more valuable to the citizen and the State.

I have reviewed the history of the growth of the common-school studies which in many States have received the sanction of statute law as fundamental branches or essential elements of the education of all. In doing this I have given chief attention to arithmetic because that is commonly thought to be most important. Grammar came next because second only to arithmetic in the esteem of teachers if not in popular favor. Geography came in for slight notice because all that is to be said of it can be said in one sentence, to the effect that it has increased its demands from the occasional readings which were "permitted not required" to the rigorous exaction of an hour per day for three or four consecutive years. Having shown from what small beginnings these branches have attained their present extraordinary proportions and having called attention to other subjects of study and instruction which, though they have been given a place in the programmes of the schools of most of our larger towns and cities, have not yet had their exact status defined; having mentioned still others which have high claims to consideration and having briefly indicated my own judgment of the value of the old studies and the new, in which judgment I know that I only agree with the most of you, I am ready, now, to submit the question, have Boards of Education and teachers been wise in extending or permitting the extension of the older studies to their present limits? I ask this question with a full view to their educa-

tional value and to their adaptation to the "exigencies of examination," as Mr. TODHUNTER puts it; but would not twice or thrice the time which our fathers gave them, suffice for us. Do we get from them an appropriate discipline for immature faculties, a discipline which can be had from no other branches of study; or, is the knowledge gained from them of more worth than that which we should gain from others? Is a knowledge of the progressions, alligations, and various solutions in fractions, percentage, etc., etc., of greater practical value or easier to master for instance than the more obvious properties of triangles and circles; or are they more necessary than a knowledge of the inexorable laws which control the relations of supply and demand? Is the discipline of mind gained from parsing and analysis superior to what could be gained by persistent and thorough drill of our pupils in the expression of their own simple thoughts in precise and elegant language? While every man may have a map or gazetteer at hand just as he has a dictionary, is a knowledge of the names and locations of the towns and the course of rivers of Africa and Asia of greater interest or value than to know the prevailing course of the winds, why a falling barometer indicates a storm, or something of that mysterious agency by which our messages are carried across the land and under the seas till they may almost girdle the earth a thousand times while it tardily moves once upon its axis. We might go on pressing such questions as these for a day, but they are all involved in one. Does not the course of studies in our common schools sadly need readjustment? I may ask, in conclusion, whether there is any subject which might more profitably engage the attention of this Association. With the material which has accumulated for years, all before us, in the light of experience and with the aid of a science of education which has received much attention of late may we not be able to build a fairer structure than that which now cumbars the ground?

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., stated that the committee appointed to visit the prisons and report at this meeting of the Association would be unable to do so. He, therefore, offered the following resolution which was adopted after a spirited discussion:—

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed whose duty it shall be to procure from State Superintendents of Public Schools statistics to show what proportion of convicts in prisons and penitentiaries received full or partial education in High or Normal—in Grammar, Intermediate, and Primary Schools, and what proportion in Universities, Colleges, or other private schools—and to report such other statistics as to the relation between education and crime as the committee may deem of educational utility, and that said committee shall report at the next meeting of this Association.

The paper of Mr. RICKOFF was discussed by H. F. HARRINGTON, Superintendent of Public Instruction, New Bedford, Mass.

REMARKS OF MR. HARRINGTON.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:—

I hold the question before us to be among the most important to which attention can be directed, and I quite agree with Mr. RICKOFF in most of the conclusions at which he has arrived. I can best express my own views by a cursory review of the conditions of the question, referring to the positions taken by Mr. RICKOFF incidentally, as I proceed.

But before I begin, I wish to say a few words of a personal character. I was once in the gospel ministry, being bent on thwarting nature, by striving to make a poor minister of what might have been a passably good schoolmaster. I studied for the ministry, in part, with one of the most noted of the clergy in Eastern Massachusetts; and when I took my first sermon to him for criticism, he said, after reading it over,—“Very well, very well; a good argument enforced by good illustrations. But you have spoiled the whole by your qualifications. Now, I give you this piece of advice. Never qualify. If you have something worth saying, say it as boldly and forcibly as you can. Make your point directly and clearly and there leave it. Never qualify. You will find that there will be enough who disagree with you to make all the qualifications you will think necessary.” I have practiced on this wise precept; and as I shall find occasion to criticise our school work severely and shall not delay to qualify, I wish to protect myself from misconstruction. I would have no one imagine that I do not prize our schools. I have not given the best years of my life to their service, purposing to labor for them to the last, and die in the harness without a belief in glorious fruits from their past, and the expectation of yet greater triumphs in their future. Their defects by no means neutralize their merits.

Turning now to our subject, I remark that the present course of study in the best class of elementary schools is in several material points the outgrowth of radical reforms. Twenty-five years ago or more, the prevalent methods of teaching were vicious in the extreme. It was a systematic process of what is technically called “grind.” The teacher had nothing to do but to keep order, assign lessons, and hear recitations. His own mind contributed little or nothing towards the mental equipment of his scholars. The text-book was everything. Accurate memorizing of its contents was the summit of laudable attainment. There was according to the true sense, no teaching whatever. The schoolmaster simply sat in judgment on memoriter text-book study. There were no explanations, no suggestions, no illustrations—nothing to stimulate curiosity and quicken thought.

From this beggarly drudgery it resulted that words, which, at the best, are only symbols of thought, came to be regarded as positive intellectual entities; as being at once both the thought and its expression. They were supposed to convey to a mind which had never heard of them before, the ideas they were invented to express. Thus the scholars were taught a mass of words—words—words, without meaning and without life.

A second notable vice of old-time teaching was the prosecution of such studies as were then approved without the slightest inquiry into their abstract or relative values. Arithmetic occupied from a third to a half of the entire school time and that by no means according to the best methods. A good part of the remaining time was devoted to parsing, that absurd provision for instruction how to read and write the English language correctly; and scholars learned to parse readily all through MILTON and COWPER, who could not construct the simplest sentence without ridiculous blundering. Spelling, too, was lifted into prominence as a positive intellectual exercise; and the youth who could spell without mistake all the "jaw-breakers" of the spelling-book, was a miracle of high scholastic attainment, no matter how ignorant and stolid he might be as to everything else. And what a prodigious misuse and waste of time, these ill-devised pursuits involved!

A third prominent vice of the teaching of a quarter of a century ago in elementary schools, was the utter divorce of the school work from the realities of practical life. The children were taught nothing about nature, nothing about art, nothing about those applications of scientific truths to practical life which make up the forces and machinery of civilization and progress. There was no cultivation of the observing faculties on the one hand—no instruction in the reason of things on the other. I need not enlarge on the leanness of the training that was characterized by such a defect.

At length the true friends of the schools, of humanity, of society, opened their eyes and grew uneasy at the prospect; and when they demanded reforms in these discreditable particulars, the response of heartfelt accord which came back to them from every quarter, proved how well founded were their allegations. They demanded that the teachers should no longer be mere machines but responsible guides; putting life and interest into text-book work by their suggestions and illustrations; pouring out their own stores of information for the benefit of their scholars; holding dry formal lesson-learning to be only the skeleton of knowledge which they themselves were to round out into full and attractive proportions. They demanded that the true values of the studies pursued should be determined; and those which were found to be useless discarded, and those in excess reduced to a proper measure. They demanded that a new range of instruction should be introduced; that the observing faculties should be cultivated through appropriate channels, at least so far as that some little insight should be given to the arcana of nature, of science, and of art; enough to prevent the reason of common things, in the ten thousand instances in which nature, science, and art are forever appealing to the senses, from remaining a perfectly-sealed book. They demanded, moreover, as a final result of the new order of things thus shadowed forth, that words should no longer be taught divorced from all significance; but should be made pictures of thought and instinct with informing life.

These proper demands were gradually acceded to, and a new order of things superseded the old. But everything has not gone smoothly and satisfactorily along under this substituted regime. A loud outcry is heard on every hand, that these reform movements are all in the wrong. Better

return, it is said, to the old routine. There are so many studies now, so many *ologies* and *osophies*, that the scholars are harrassed beyond measure. They are hurried day by day from one thing to another, so that they learn nothing thoroughly and get no discipline of mind.

There is a basis of truth to these complaints; truth serious enough to deserve prompt and interested attention. But defects in carrying out a radical reform were to have been anticipated. Who has been so foolishly sanguine as to suppose it would be otherwise? What reformation was ever put in force which did not fail in some point or other, to realize its ideals, and satisfy its friends?

But it is easier to detect faults than it is to divine their sources and apply a remedy. The popular outcry that there are too many studies, and the current protest against the introduction of subjects relating to science and art do not by any means solve the problem. I will try to do it in a summary way.

In the first place, the teachers, in changing from their old constraints to the freedom of their true functions, have gone altogether too far. From talking too little they are now sinning by talking too much. Many of them keep up an almost incessant flow of remark, now explanatory, now suggestive; and instead of only removing such obstacles as their scholars cannot surmount unaided, they seem to strive to give them pathways level and smooth as a railroad track. They answer all their questions, anticipate and remove all their difficulties; so that the youth under their charge come at last to lean wholly upon them, and are indisposed to the least severe mental exertion.

Moreover, this stream of talk from the teacher breaks up the scholar's time of study with its petty distractions, dislocates his effort after a thorough mastery of his work, and frets and fatigues his mind, without strengthening or filling it. Here we have the most prolific fountain-head of existing evils.

A second defect in the methods of elementary work at the present day, (it has gradually crept in, side by side with the reforms which have been instituted) is a too frequent alternation of the studies. Tasking mental effort is eminently a deliberative process; and the moment a sense of necessary hurry is felt, the faculties become unhinged and work is imperfectly performed. There may be too many studies, as is alleged, and the vicious alternation may be, to an extent, inevitable. I shall come to that point by and by. Still if, just as they now have place, if they were differently arranged so that only a reasonable number would be pressing on the attention at once, I am satisfied that an incalculable sense of relief would be felt.

Another serious defect, tending to bring discredit on a range of instruction of incalculable importance has arisen from this mistake. The topics relating to science and art, (which have everywhere been classified as "Oral Lessons," for the express purpose of avoiding the error of overcrowding the curriculum with too many studies), have been provided for in such a philosophical way as to force the teachers to make positive studies of them. The scholars have been plied with scientific principles and technicalities beyond their years and beyond their opportunities.

Another source of evil is the gradual enlargement of the ground covered by some of the fundamental studies, such as arithmetic and geography, until their increased proportions overbear everything else, and create a prejudice against studies, which would otherwise find ample room and opportunity. But this topic has been so fully treated by Mr. Rickoff that I forbear to enlarge upon it.

At this point let me ask, who are conspicuous in making this outcry against the schools? There are several classes of the opponents of the new measures. First come some of the parents and friends of the scholars, with the complaint that there are too many studies to which I have already referred. Again, there are the prejudiced conservatives who are wedded to old methods because they reluct from anything new, and therefore are intolerant of attempts at reform. In the third place there are lazy old teachers and indifferent young ones, who hate the exertion which the new methods require. *Fourth*, there are the rigidly-philosophical minds which insist that oral teaching, especially in science, can bear no exact and determinate fruit and is, therefore, worthless. Only the first and last of these classes merit any attention.

I wish to say a few words about the oral lessons of our grammar schools. These are intended to give the scholars, most of whom will never receive any education beyond that obtained in the grammar schools, some conception of the great truths of nature, of science, and of art, which have so much to do with the commonest facts of daily life; something about the structure and uses of the vegetable world; about animals, their habits and benefit to man; about the mechanical powers and their applications to human advantage; about the steam-engine, the telegraph, and so forward. It has been arranged in the better school systems that this instruction shall be given orally, at stated intervals, to avoid the multiplication of studies; and I have already adverted to the unfortunate mistake which has been made in many quarters, of elaborating a programme for these lessons so scientific and technical as to demand positive lesson-learning for its accomplishment with any degree of effectiveness. This it is which has created the charges which prevail as to ridiculous teaching of *ologies* and *osophies*. Had there been no exaggerated pretence of scientific instruction—had abstract philosophical principles and formidable technicalities been avoided, and only common and familiar applications of science been cared for, admirable results would have been secured and vexatious misconstructions prevented.

"But," say the scientists, "inexact scientific knowledge is worse than nothing; and all knowledge obtained orally is confused and inexact."

This ground is both true and untrue. I frankly admit that any one who expects accurate knowledge to be obtained through oral instruction, so as to be fairly made the subject of critical examination by the ordinary tests, will find himself woefully mistaken. To illustrate this I will read some results of written examinations held in the London public schools. They are authentic, and I have been sorry to hear it asserted that they can easily be matched in many a public school in America. The spelling corresponds with the knowledge:—

"Where is Turkey?" asks the examiner.

"Turkey is the capital of Norfolk."

"Where is Turin?"

"Tureen is the capittal of Chiner; the peepul there lives on burds nests and has long tails."

"Gibberralter is the principle town in Rooshia."

"What do you know of the patriarch Abraham?"

"He was the father of Lot and ad tew wives—wun was called Hishmale and t'uther Haygur. He kept wun at home and he turned the t'other into the desert, where she became a pillow of salt in the daytime and a pillow of fire at nite."

"What do you know of Joseph?"

"He wore a coat of many garments. He were chief butler to Faro, and told his dreams. He married Pottifier's dorter, and he led the Gypshans out of bondage to Kana in Gallilee, and then fell on his sword and died, in the site of the promiss land."

"Give the names of the books of the Old Testament?"

"Devonshire, Exeter, Littikus, Numbers, Stronomy, Jupiter, Judges, Ruth, etc."

"Who was Moses?"

"He was an Egyption. He lived in a bark maid of bullrushers, and he kep a golden carf, and worshipt braizen snakes, and he het nuthin but kwales and manner for forty years. He was kort by the air of his ed while riding under the bow of a tree, and he was killed by his son Abslon, as he was a-hanging from the bow. His end was pease."

"What is a miracle?"

"Don't know."

"If you saw the sun shining overhead at midnight, what would you call it?"

"The moon."

"But if you were told it was the sun?"

"I should say it was a lie."

A remark lately made by my little grandchild four years old, further illustrates the imperfection of knowledge gained through the ear alone. She had been singing a stanza of a negro melody running,

"They have stole my love away,
To toll mid the cotton and the cane,"

and her aunt remarked, "That was very cruel of them Elsie, was it not?"

Now the little one had never before had her attention directed to the word *toil*; but she knew what *toilet* was—and what *oil* was—a word somewhat resembling *toil*. So, putting her positive knowledge forward to supply the defects of her ignorance, she answered:—

"Why no, aunty Fanny; for when she has put the oil on her hair and finished her toilet it will be all right."

But in spite of these facts, these admitted defects of oral instruction, I plead for its retention in elementary schools. I plead for the exercises technically termed "oral work." Too much must not be expected of it;

especially that must not be expected of it which it is confessedly unable to perform. But a just expectation will find it productive of admirable results. In fact it is mainly through oral communications or the ordinary one-sight reading which is practically identical with them, that the great majority of men obtain their vocabularies and the chief part of their available knowledge. The separate products of what we teach orally in our schools may not bear a rigid examination; but in their aggregate, they rightly inform and furnish the mind.

I come now to the summing-up of these reflections. A change in the studies of elementary schools is imperative; but it should be effected through the modification rather than the curtailment of the course as it now exists. I should deplore a return to the old system of "grind" or anything approaching it. For what is actually the trustworthy report from our schools? What is their condition as measured by genuine tests? What better test can be had than the evidence of the mental capacity of the American masses as displayed in the late Paris Exposition? While the exhibit from America in that great display was comparatively small, it was large enough to achieve the triumphs of acknowledged supremacy in most of the leading departments of practical art. Even of products that demand the utmost cunning of a master-hand,—whose perfection displays the dreams of the subtlest fancy wrought into visible shape with exquisite taste and consummate skill; a perfection which has been for centuries the exclusive boast of Parisian craftsmen—America divided the honors with France itself. How has this marvel come about? Whence this inexhaustible stock of resources, this fertility of invention, this nicety of taste, this mastery in manipulation; and that, not in one direction alone but in every direction in which the American mind has chosen to signalize itself? Whence but from the diffused intelligence of the American masses obtained in the public schools?

In the main then, our children are taught in the wisest way; our system is radically excellent; it needs only to be pruned and toned down. Let our teachers continue to be free; let them continue to pour out from their storehouses of knowledge—but let them learn, meanwhile, that silence, at times, is better than speech. Let the studies be arranged in such order as not to alternate too frequently, harrassing the minds of the scholars by forcing sudden changes in their trains of thought. Let the old standard subjects of arithmetic, geography, and grammar be brought within reasonable proportions; and let the "oral work" be prosecuted under wise limitations and with a clear understanding of its legitimate advantages. Then I firmly believe that all carping criticism will be prevented and our schools move on in the glory of unexampled success.

The Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK read a paper on

EDUCATION AT HOME AND ABROAD.

[This paper Mr. PHILBRICK declined to furnish for publication.—*Secretary.*]

The Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM who had been appointed to open the discussion of this paper declined to do so on account of the lateness of the hour. On motion, Mr. WICKERSHAM was urged to proceed with the discussion. Before the motion was adopted Mr. WICKERSHAM had left the room. Dr. E. BROOKS of Pennsylvania said the time was too short for a proper discussion of the paper and that it was unjust to ask Mr. WICKERSHAM to proceed under existing circumstances. He also alluded to the fact that once before, at the Boston meeting in 1872, Mr. WICKERSHAM had been appointed to open a discussion [on Compulsory Education] but the length of the Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN's paper had prevented him from doing so.

On motion of E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, Mr. WICKERSHAM was allowed a half hour at the opening of the session on Thursday morning to discuss Mr. PHILBRICK's paper.

On motion, the Association adjourned till 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8 P. M.

W: F. PHELPS from the Committee on Nomination of Officers reported the following officers for the next year:—

For President.—J. ORMOND WILSON, of D. C.

For First Vice-President.—JAMES H. SMART, of Ind.

For Vice-Presidents.—NORMAN A. CALKINS, of N. Y.; DAVID N. CAMP, of Ct.; EDWIN C. HEWETT, of Ill.; GEORGE W. FETTER, of Pa.; GRACE C. BIBB, of Mo.; HENRY F. HARRINGTON, of Mass.; JAMES M. GARNETT, of Md.; W. COLEGROVE, of W. Va.; J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa.

For Secretary.—W: D. HENKLE, of Ohio.

For Treasurer.—ELI T. TAPPAN, of Ohio.

For Counsellors at Large.—JOHN EATON, of D. C.; JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio.

For Counsellors.—JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Mass.; Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Ct.; A. M. GAMMELL, of R. I.; EDWARD DANFORTH, of N. Y.; W. N. BARRINGER, of N. J.; J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pa.; D. W. HARLAN, of Del.; HENRY E. SHEPHERD, of Md.; J. H. PEAY, of Va.; T. M. MARSHALL, of W. V.; GUSTAVUS J. ORR, of Ga.; W. P. HAISLEY, of Fla.; W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, of Ky.; HELEN HOADLEY, of Tenn.; REBECCA D. RICKOFF, of Ohio; E. E. WHITE, of Ind.; S. H. WHITE, of Ill.; LEWIS McLOUTH, of Mich.; JOHN P. BIRD, of Wis.; W: F. PHELPS, of Minn.; J. L. PICKARD, of Iowa; W: T. HARRIS, of Mo.; ALEXANDER HOGG, of Texas; ZALMON RICHARDS, of D. C.; A. B. CORLISS, of Vt.

The report was adopted.

W: F. PHELPS offered the following resolution, which was adopted:—

Resolved, That the Committee on Publication be and they hereby are instructed to place a copy in pamphlet form of so much of Dr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK's paper, read before this body, as refers to the Bureau of Education on the desk of each Senator and Representative in the Congress of the United States at the next session thereof.

The Rev. A. D. MAYO, of Springfield, Mass., read the following address entitled

THE NEW TEACHER IN NEW AMERICA.

Going to my office one Monday morning, some twelve years ago, in Cincinnati, Ohio, I found the stranger's chair occupied by a representative man. A small and rather ague-smitten, youngish gentleman, in dilapidated coat and trousers, legs almost buried in a huge pair of Virginia cavalry boots, and head covered by a "shocking bad hat;" with a visible crack across the right eye of his spectacles, he was evidently "one more unfortunate" left by the ebb tide of civil war in that world's receptacle of "odd fish;"—the Great West. His story was soon told in faultless English, and with a depth of earnestness which went to the heart.

He was a scion of a "highly-respectable family" in that Paradise of respectability, an old city of Massachusetts. At the call to arms he had left the very "select school" in which he polished a limited number of youthful respectabilities, and marched, in full force, upon the spunky little nation of South Carolina. His chief conquest in that turbulent realm had been a confiding widow, of middle age, who, at the close of the war, entrusted her small patrimony to him as an investment in the saw-mill business, in Western Virginia. Like the prophet of old, our adventurous friend narrowly escaped being "sawn asunder" in his own mill; and was only saved from a grave in the wilderness by another "gentleman from Boston," who bought him out at a frightful discount;—the two gay deceivers leaving the South-Carolina widow in the lurch.

He appeared in my study in a penniless state, offering to be the travelling tutor of a gentleman's son desirous of making the European tour. An hour's probing revealed the fact that he was one of those small, tinted tapers of knowledge that gracefully adorn the ornamental candlestick of a very limited "select school for young gentlemen," in an old eastern city. We advised him to turn his steps eastward, and reinstate himself in his old position. "That I have thought of, seriously,"—said he, with charming *naïveté*,—"but, it seems to me, every man of culture, whose circumstances permit, owes it to his country to be a missionary of the higher civilization to the Great West." We assured him that the Queen city of the Ohio Valley was not yet far enough along to appreciate the spirit of self-sacrifice that prompted him in this forlorn hope. Nevertheless, by the kindness of a rich city cousin in the whiskey business, he was put into a nice suit of clothes, with a pair of whole spectacles, and ticketed through to Chicago.

My memory goes back to the day when this type of schoolmaster was a good deal in vogue in eastern cities, and occasionally sent forth as an agency of civilization and culture "out West" and "down South." This sort of schoolmaster was, indeed, often a schoolmistress, whose method of instruction was eminently "polite"; looking to the rescue of a select class of educated young women from the common herd, rather than lifting the people into higher realms of spiritual freedom, knowledge, and power. A generation ago, the man who ventured to address a national audience on "The New Teacher in New America" would naturally have

understood by that teacher a cultivated man or woman, educated in some famous college or seminary East of the Alleghanies and North of Richmond, who was contemplating a venture as the tutor or governess in a respectable family in the South, or a professor or "preceptress" in a boy's college or female academy in that far-off land of big trees and malaria, whence we welcome to-day, the representatives of some of the best schooling in America, and the honored President of our National Convention of Teachers. And these people, themselves, would have been rather mild specimens of the British methods of instruction, half a century ago, than American teachers in any original sense of the word. Yet, even then, the dawning inspiration of a new life was in our national schools, and many a young man and woman who went out on this mission of culture, became, in due time, a power in a new State, or a pillar of beauty in a New American Home.

But all this is changed, and he who addresses you to-night, on the *New Teacher in New America* must put away all provincial ideas and try to comprehend the full circle of the mighty field to be tilled before he can draw the portrait of the national husbandman of souls whom the people will recognize as their leader to the New American Kingdom of Heaven. The one fact that is yet hidden from great masses of our population, indeed has hardly risen on the horizon of the average American statesman; is that the old American Republic no longer exists. Like Saul of old, who went out to seek his father's asses and found a kingdom; the old South, in 1860, went forth in quest of a "Southern Confederacy," but finds itself, to-day, the heir of a new Republic. Under the pressure that tremendous conflict these states of ours were forced to live through a century in 20 years, and to come out one of the foremost powers in the world. The one radical result of the great war was the destruction of provincialism in the American Union. Old Boston and old New-England, no less than old Charleston and old Virginia, alike "went up" during those years of destruction; and when the sulphurous cloud lifted we saw a new heaven and a new earth. A new America from the woods of the Aroostook to the sands of the gulf of California. All the might of men is impotent to carry back the valley of the Connecticut or the valley of the Rio Grande to its old estate.

Standing here to-day, as teachers and friends of the children and youth of this new world, let us proclaim this fact in the face of all comers, and, whatever others may do or forbear to do, let us steadily fix our eyes on the new Education that is the same all round the national domain; and the new Teacher who can be alike the master of souls and the captain of the New Civilization in the log school-house of the freedman in Georgia, or in the President's chair of the oldest University of the land. For the birthday of the New America was the birthday of the real sovereignty of the American people. All little expedients for outwitting the masses of the people and governing the new Republic by cliques of gentlemen, scholars, priests, or politicians are now only like animated chips striving to direct the tide on which they are whirling out to sea. We shall live or die, as a nation, as the voting and acting majority of the people can be persuaded to follow the load-star of truth and love in public policy and

private life. And with all due reverence for the educating power of the Home, the Church, and the Ministry of public life, we affirm that neither of them, nor all of them together can achieve the task of training the 8,000,000 children and youth of our new America into the citizenship the nation demands. Only one agency is competent to this, and that is an institution unlike any other that ever was or now is in the world;—the American Common School. In the great future that opens before us the New Teacher is the “coming man.”

But here, on the threshold, we are met by the spirit of the new time which replies:—“Yes, but the *new* “coming man.” The “old man” who still thinks, plots, and ravages the world with his armies across the sea, is our venerable friend, the “first Adam”; the masculine man, who began his career in the green age of the world with the verdant notion that, in the intervals of cultivating Eden and naming the animals, he could “mould” the lovely creature at his side. He, as we have heard, came out like so many an American boy with his first moustache, who tries to “mould” his girl cousin,—a prisoner in her toils and a “fallen man.” The United States of America is just waking up to the mighty deliverance of St. Paul,—“*The second man is the Lord from Heaven;*”—the new man constructed in the image of him who, whatever else he may have been, was certainly all the divinest of man this world has known; the prophecy of the man that was to come. The coming man who is to be the teacher of our American youth will be our blended man and woman, inspired, and trained into the teaching, living soul that will lift the little ones out of the private home, up into the common American manhood and womanhood, and the citizenship of the Republic that is to be.

No first-rate educator now wastes time discussing the question of the right of American girls to the highest of the higher education, and the equality of work and wages in the American common school. All questioning of this cardinal principle now goes on aside the main current of the national life; in clubs and coteries, among scholars, priests, and littérateurs, somewhat out of sympathy with the logic of republican affairs. The little island of Nantucket, on the south shore of Massachusetts, learned a generation ago, that the men could “sail off into the west” in search of great whales, and the women could make such a paradise of intelligence and energy of their island-home, in their absence, as the world had never seen. The late war taught the people of North and South the same lesson; and no people gives up an idea ground into it in the fire and blood of a revolution, at the call, even, of a club of college presidents.

Henceforth we are bound to have for our teacher the “New Man,” masculine or feminine as may be. The only question now is in the proper adjustment of the varied elements of teaching capacity in any given system of schools;—just where, best, to place the fit woman and the valuable man; also, how to utilize that not infrequent phenomenon, the gray-haired master whose heart is softer and more gifted with Christian tact than any schoolmistress that works under him; or the gentle lady principal who threshes every big boy so completely “in his inner-

most" that he is never called to the unpleasant duty of taking off his coat and being threshed "in the outermost."

Up to the last twenty years it was a great advantage to be a man before an American School Committee; and the people meanwhile suffered all things, through their children, at the hands of a multitude of ignorant, rough, and foolish teachers, who wrought upon the muscle of their masculinity. Now it is a prodigious advantage, in all things save the pay, to be a woman in the eyes of the Board of Education; and the dear people groan again over the fussing of myriads of green girls, who, but for the fascination of their sex, would be politely invited to step upward into matrimony or downward into service; at least to step out of the school-room at the double quick. In the days that are coming, as fast as our girls step up to the whole feast of knowledge in the work of preparation and take on the full responsibility of instruction and supervision in school life, they will lose this advantage of the sentimental and sexual sort. The coming school-committee man (who will be, as well, a woman) will neither be bullied by mannish assumption nor wheedled by womanish arts, in the examination of the teachers for the common school. With all wise and loving allowance for the native gifts and graces of either sex, the laws of school selection, like the awful silent statutes of Divine Providence, will execute themselves with a single eye to the fitness of the applicant, "and to him or her—who hath, shall be given more abundantly"; but "to him or her who hath not, shall be taken away, even what he hath." And never till our American Teacher is thus reconstructed, after the image of the Great Teacher, the divine Man, shall we know what wondrous things can be done with a generation of children standing on the threshold of the boundless enchantments that American life is, to-day, to every generous American youth.

This new Teacher, the coming man, compact of our man and woman, is now the corner-stone of the American Common School, the real endowment of the American University. We are, to-day, just at that parting of the ways where we cannot move a step further, in safety, in the education of the people, till the new Teacher shows us the way in which we should go.

The discontent with our public schools always drives at one point;—*that the school fumbles with, but does not teach the child.* It is asserted by multitudes of people whose opinion is worth taking into account, that the mass of American children come out of the public school, of all grades, poorly fitted for practical life. And by practical life the most intelligent of these objectors do not mean the art of money-getting alone, but the capacity for a round-about American citizenship of the sort demanded by the exigencies of the coming generation. I do not believe a great deal in this assertion as it applies to our best schools in cities, villages, and occasional superior rural districts, over the country. I believe this class of public schools, primary, high, and collegiate, is adjusting itself to the call of the age and the country about as rapidly as possible; considering the difficulty of experimenting with childhood, the most conservative thing on earth, and the constitutional obstinacy of the pedagogic character. But concerning a majority of the country district

schools, even of Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio, of the whole country, this assertion is too often dangerously and disgracefully true.

Let any man of common sense leave the railroad at any point, East or West; push a dozen miles out into the open country; examine the average district school, and say if the education of the people has kept pace with its facilities for transportation. Compare the country store, church, farm of Western New York with its improved machinery for saving labor; even the new country tavern with the school of the average country district. Can you honestly say the latter is abreast with any of the former? The only real cause of this outcry against the common schools is, that within the past twenty-five years, the American people has adopted improved methods in almost every sphere of human life, that have wrought a revolution in our whole style of existence; while the average country district, and sometimes the average village and city free school is too often left behind, floundering in the Serbonian bog of the old, slow, shiftless methods; bad enough in by-gone days, but as ineffective for modern uses as the attempt of a small boy with the aid of a pair of new boots to board the flying express train. We are not about to go off into a tirade against anybody for this state of things. The people, of course, are responsible, at the last. But no less is it true that the country now looks to the Teacher to lead American childhood out of this puzzle of an old-time school, trying to make new-time citizens. And it is plainly seen that our school cannot move a step further, indeed must steadily lose ground, unless the teacher I have already outlined comes to the front and leads the army out of Egypt, across the desert, to the promised land.

The secret of our public-school muddle seems to be that the people have done a great deal more for it during the past twenty-five years than the average teacher. While our communities, East and West, have poured forth money for public instruction in a way never heard of before in this world, the outcome of the investment has often not been up to the result of the average venture in a Chicago corner lot.

It cannot be denied that during the past twenty years the improvement in school-house architecture, and the furnishings of these "temples of science" have been remarkable. The country is filled with comfortable, often superior school buildings. One of the chief delights of an American tour is the hourly glimpse of the noble buildings erected by the people for the instruction of the children. But how often this palace is occupied by the same teachers that plodded away in the old shanty school-house; with the exception that an inexperienced girl is substituted for an inexperienced man as the head of the winter school. In thousands of villages and scores of cities between Boston and San Francisco, the new school-house is half a century ahead of the principal, to say nothing of the "assistants" who carry into the new building the old fumbling methods or no methods of instruction that would make even the Sorbonne a temple of nescience. Now, a first truth in pedagogics is that a good teacher with a shingle and a piece of chalk, under an apple tree, is a greater power than the most pompous professor of incompetency enthroned in the chair of instruction under the loftiest roof of a "new university."

2d. Our new methods of instruction, admirable as many of them are, destined as they are to become the commonplace of the next generation, have too often been "pitched into," even our city graded schools, in the way a farmer unloads a wagon of hay into a capacious hay mow; sometimes pitched in at the imminent risk of the helpless teacher who stands sweating under the falling load to "mow away." The practiced school man is exasperated in going from city to city, to see these beautiful methods of instruction in the hands, often, of old teachers, too indolent or conceited or stupid even to master their superficial forms, or of green normal graduates who set up their little card house of improved methods only to be knocked down in the first school week by any sharp boy who has a fancy to quiz the new "school-maam." We have not reflected that what we call the new methods of instruction are only the old, everlasting, simple ways by which Divine Providence, and every wise parent and teacher, since the first man, have led childhood up to the life of wisdom, beauty, and love; that only he who is in sympathy with Divine Providence and the upper side of humanity can even know what these methods really are; that nothing so completely unfits anybody to work them as a course of school-keeping in the time-honored, mechanical way. It is utterly vain to suppose you can catch a romp of a girl, in city or country, and by a year's or two years' drill in the superficial forms of Pestalozzi or Froebel, make a school teacher of her "after the pattern shown in the mount." Unless you wake up her womanhood, at first, and set all her sweet and noble womanly aspirations and faculties streaming out like a lakeshore sunrise towards the children, you will only succeed in tattooing the surface of her mind with a set of queer images, ridiculous to the roguish boy and incomprehensible to his mamma.

A great deal of this failure is due to the incompetency of the average college graduate, installed as master, even to comprehend the ability that really exists in his normal girl-graduate. How often has my soul ached with regret that I was not born a JOHN MORRISSEY to "settle" some conceited young graduate of Harvard or Ann Arbor, at his occupation of "bull-dozing" half a dozen admirable young women, from his high chair on the master's platform; too ignorant of children, methods of instruction and fine young women to do anything but try to impose on his school the absurd style of teaching under which he groaned in his college classroom. A course of pedagogics in every American college, with opportunity for practice, and occasional class-room experience with superior young women, would be a marvellous lift to the higher grade of our city schools all over the land. Until this comes to pass our normal and collegiate systems of education will be perpetually at odds with each other. The failure of the best schools to handle effectively the best methods, and the utter oblivion to their existence through whole regions of country, in the district school-house, is one of the most fruitful causes of the popular state of educational unrest.

3d. The reasonable demand for the industrial and technical education of young people who are to live by the labor of the hands, cannot be met until the teachers of our common schools better comprehend two things; first, economy of time in school work, and, second, the art of awakening

the observing, reflecting and executive faculty of children through better general methods of instruction. The proposition of certain enthusiastic specialists and energetic manufacturers to take half the time of the average school child, from 6 to 12, for instruction in mechanics, shows a lamentable ignorance of the condition of the average school child in the average common school. The fact is, that, under the present modes of instruction, there is not half time enough to teach this child the small allowance of common knowledge without which every young mechanic will be an incipient communist. We want no addition to the mob of ignorant, godless workmen, with one little talent, without the brains to turn a hand to a new emergency, or to see that the way to encourage men to work for property is not to turn to and ruin all who have already succeeded in gaining it. The wisest authorities in this matter seem inclined to the idea that until the age of 12 years, the best thing to do for an incipient American workman is to give him a thorough common-school education, by the best methods. This will generally expand his mind, wake up his higher powers of observation, reflection and execution, and place him before the specialist, ready to run the race, with untold advantage over the child distracted by the effort to go to school and study a profession before he is out of his mother's lap. As soon as the average teacher is able so to instruct the child, up to the age of 12, he shall have the foundation for a splendid system of Industrial training. For six years of real instruction by a real teacher, will do more to qualify a boy to be President of the United States than the fifteen years of primary, grammar, high, collegiate and professional training through which half the superior youth of America wade in search of the millennium of success in life.

4th. The complaint against "cramming" and the "multiplicity of studies" in our schools would be robbed of its force by a race of competent teachers. Col. PARKER, of Quincy, Mass., trains his schoolmistresses to teach an Irish, freckled-faced boy or a slow Welsh girl, more in two years, without weariness or confusion of mind, than the schoolmaster of my youth was able to impart in six years, with only the "three R's" for a course of study, and a daily threshing thrown in. Whenever you find the people grumbling because the children are "crammed" and confused by study you may pretty safely infer that their teacher is competent to teach nothing well, and has not learned the a, b, c, of the pedagogic art;—the ability to correlate the studies and call forth the powers of the child in the school-room.

5th. If the American High School, in cities, persists in building itself on the corner-stone of the Latin Grammar, and whips its pupils through the old-time regulation course; all the while aping the airs of the university of the past; it will be more and more discussed whether the people shall be justly taxed to support it. If it builds on the corner-stone of a thorough knowledge of our glorious English tongue and its marvellous literature, with a generous superstructure of science, history, social and political economy, that philosophy which is the knowledge of man, and the use of the languages of the great modern nations; the people cannot be beaten out of its support, and will gladly build the wing to the free High School to fit the boy and girl for college. The sooner our High Schools are offi-

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ceded by the superior and comprehensive teaching men and women, who appreciate this fact, the sooner the discordant clamor now rising against them;—a strange orchestra, in which the pundit of the University, the sectarian priest and the ward-politician, guiltless of letters, combine;—will subside.

6th. The pinching of our popular economies in school expenditure, with much that is deplorable, like most things evil, has in it a half-good. It is a melancholy fact that the majority of the school teachers in the United States are fairly paid, considering the kind of work they do. *No class of unskilled laborers is now paid anywhere in Christendom, as the people of the United States pay the army of unskilled teachers who "worry along with" the children in the common schools.* The average parson, Catholic and Protestant, must go through years of study and training;—at least wait till he is twenty-one years old;—before he can be permitted to rear a family or live unmarried on \$400 per year. The average lawyer and doctor would starve to death a hundred times, the first ten years of his practice, could he not eke out his scanty wages by some outside occupation, or rely on his friends for support. By what right, then, does the crowd of "nice girls" who scorn even to know there is such a profession as "pedagogy," demand to be kept afloat as school teachers by the State on their voyage to matrimony? A few months ago I received a note from a presumably young woman, suggesting that, as "a dear friend of hers" lived adjacent to one of the largest school-houses in our city, she would be glad of a situation as teacher therein. Her opening sentence, like the famous child's tale, was a "story without an end," beginning with the present participle and running up a tree; but she offered to send her photograph! The American people may not always take the prize for strict honesty in dealing, or for sound theories in finance; but it is not a stingy people, and rarely starves a man or woman who is visibly doing thorough, useful, consecrated work. The teacher, like the minister of religion or the physician, who does not so love his work that he would do it at the risk of his life, in any emergency, and thank God a hundred times every day that he is permitted to do it at all, is not fit to be on the salary list of any school committee. When this class of teachers is the majority, they will be supported with the generosity characteristic of the most generous people that ever lived on the globe.

And especially is the most vital question in school life;—the character-training of children by moral and religious instruction and discipline;—wholly within the province of the teacher. It is not easy to disentangle the cross threads in the popular fallacy about "secular education," which affects especially the editorial and small political mind. But what a great many good and intelligent people do mean is:—*that until a teacher has in some way become an incarnation of the great principles of living taught in the Bible, his daily reading of it in school is only one more added to the great crowd of educational shams.* We all have heard of the daughter of the woman that made the champion loaf of bread in her native town, who, in her visit to her city cousins at Thanksgiving, was asked to go into the kitchen and make a loaf of her mother's famous bread. She said:—"No; I have always observed that ma stirs in a great deal of judgment when she

makes her best bread; and that I could never understand." That is the difficulty with this whole matter of Bible-reading and moral and religious instruction in common schools. When the teacher has "stirred in" her Bible so completely that she is a walking representative of the Sermon on the Mount, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, and the Golden Rule, and is so endowed with spiritual tact and wisdom, that her learning, her daily walk and conversation, her discipline and whole method of instruction fit the spiritual nature of the child as her new pair of white gloves fit her hand; the wrangle over the Bible in the school will die out in that district. Until this is measurably true; especially while the school-rooms are filled with careless, irreligious or frivolous young men and women, "waiting for something better to turn up," the trouble will grow.

I once knew a schoolmaster who shamed a roomful of quarrelsome boys into manhood by opening his Bible and reading, as he could read, the two words: "*Be courteous.*" I remember another master in the days of "auld lang syne," who descended in wrath from the platform while the scholars were reading the morning exercise in the Bible, with his finger shut in on the passage, "*God is love,*" and boxed the ears of mischievous Master TIMOTHY DWIGHT JONES with the holy Book till "young TIMOTHY" deeply regretted that he had not, like his namesake in the *New-England Primer*, "early learned sin to fly." I don't believe the school committee would delay long about the use of the Bible in the case of the former master;—nor of the latter! The cure for the weakness of the character-side of the school, or the pangs of the sectarian religious conscience, is not the separation of American school children into sectarian squads under the drill of the parish priest; nor the banishment of religion and morals and the Bible from the school-room; equivalent to exhausting the oxygen from the atmosphere;—but the determination of the people that only teachers of established character, wisdom, and tact, shall be established in the chair of instruction at all. Then it will be understood that the roots of every true science and art, no less than the roots of religious and moral living, strike deep into the soil of reverence for the old eternal sanctities that make the world what it is, and preside over the endless succession of the eternities to come.

In every point that has been considered, the vital issue is now a superior teacher. And by this general assertion, I am not unmindful of the claims of the great and increasing number of excellent teachers in actual service; especially in our improved country, city and village graded schools. I would not disparage the merit that has been gained by hard-earned experience in the schoolroom, because it has come "across lots" to the goal and not by the regulation road of normal training and improved methods. I only say to such experts what they are too ready to confess;—that it is too expensive to sacrifice a dozen school-rooms full of children in order to polish up one schoolmistress, who, as soon as she becomes valuable to the State is also a successful candidate for higher honors in the state of matrimony. I also feel keenly the indignities, humiliations, and positive injustice inflicted upon our meritorious teachers everywhere nowadays, by the barbarism, that, in the name of economy, cramps the soul that the body may still enjoy its little luxury or base indulgence. Nobody shall

surpass me in charity for the failures or appreciation of the success of the teaching corps; especially of that vast throng of young women on whom the country has cast the hardest burden ever yet laid upon the tender shoulders of a generation of ambitious and patriotic girls. But, surely, in a public matter of such pressing weight as the fit education of American children, no man has a right to let any consideration of sentimentalism or personal affection, or philanthropic zeal, stand between his best judgment and the good of the State.

Nobody so well understands as the superior teachers of this land how imperious is the necessity to vitalize and reconstruct the teaching force in our national schools, and how impossible it is to move forward another step without this reformation. Let me then indicate three of the essential tests which we must apply in the examination of the new Teacher.

1. The primary question to be asked, or to be answered without the formal asking, of every American teacher in the common schools should be:—“*Is your love for children, and your desire to make them true men and women, and good citizens of our New Republic, the controlling motive in entering this profession?*”

The only successful teacher in the common school is the man or woman who sends the child from the recitation bench with more respect for himself as a child of God, a son or daughter of man, and a citizen of the United States of America; with the conviction that all knowledge and culture and power must be made to tell directly in the growth of a manhood or womanhood able to meet the call of the life that is now swiftly coming upon him. There is no danger that any teacher will be too highly cultivated in anything. There is deplorable danger that our superior teachers, especially, will mistake the point of success and ruin the schools by an ineffectual ambition to make experts of the mass of mankind. Special culture is the prerogative of the few, and the place for its development is the modern University or the special school. A wise, able, refined, patriotic, and Christian manhood or womanhood is the prerogative of every child in this Republic; and upon that central point must all our reforms in common schools be made to bend.

2. The second test in the examination of the New Teacher follows hard upon the first;—*the power of absorbing all culture into character and general ability of manhood and womanhood.* There are two sorts of teachers who rear up two sorts of pupils. The first are people of strong aptitudes which grow out in one direction in a way that enfeebles the general life, and projects the pedant and pedagogue in the most extreme sense; like a tree that runs to one splendid branch which burgeons forth into an oppressive luxuriance that absorbs the vitality of the trunk. Too many a mighty school-master or lofty schoolmistress strikes the common sense of a wise school-committee man like the last big cannon out of KRUPP's foundry; mounted on a carriage just adequate to hold it up to the firing point, liable to be made kindling-wood at the first discharge. Of all educated people, these are the most mischievous to our average boys and girls in school. For nothing is easier than to fill a class of commonplace youth with the idea that each of them is just such a “great gun;” with the fatal result that each turns his life into a series of petty explosions of a pop-gun mounted

on a carriage of jack-straws. The other style of teacher is the man or woman who grows visibly every year, all round, in the graces and noble traits of a superior character, as the result of increasing culture; and who imparts, or awakens the power in the child to change to blood and weave into muscle, bone, and brain, all that goes in at the senses, and the open soul. It is this power of teaching the art of assimilating knowledge into character and competency for the highest uses of life, that must be looked after by the examiner of teachers with a lighted candle. And the normal school, which does not, in some way, select the girl who has this faculty and train her up to a commanding power in the school-room is not really a training-school of teachers, but a second-rate academy with a big normal sign over the door.

3. We must all the time be aiming at real experience in the teacher. And by that I don't mean we must wait till a man or woman has lost youth and begun to droop into the "sere and yellow leaf," before we give an opportunity to do good work. Experience is as varied as the varieties of human character. Divine Providence is here our best guide. Every little child, certainly in New England, in the regular order of God's appointment, has a young or youngish mother, a less young maiden aunt, and a more or less venerable grandmother. Doubtless the grandmother has the widest experience of life in general; and the maiden aunt has certainly the most brilliant theory about the management of infancy and childhood. But, for the best of reasons, the dear Father of us all selects the young girl-wife, full of the sweet and uplifting experiences of new love and the consecration of her earliest years of married life, to be the mother and closest friend of the new darling just let loose from heaven. The best "experience" in a school-room full of little children, after fit knowledge and training in sound principles and methods is secured, is the warm heart, boundless aspiration, and faith of a deep-souled girl-teacher. Her love and trust and youthful sympathy with the little ones is better than the scientific drill of the gray-haired expert or the wire-edged furor for culture of the learned woman whose love for the child has given place to admiration for the "great souls" and "ideas" of literature, science, and art. We need all kinds of experience in the common school;—the experience of the fit girl-teacher for the little ones (of course, there is no objection to an "old girl" of fifty summers, if she keeps her girlhood all the time in a state of high preservation); the experience of mature age and long observation, for supervision of the young teacher and dealing with older grades of pupils; and another experience, most valuable in its way, of the wise committee-man or woman, whose successful career of instruction has been supplemented by success in professional life; and who is, therefore, able to overlook the school-room from the vantage point of a large acquaintance with affairs. All these varieties of experience suppose a fit period of preparation in academical and professional discipline, and happily, if the preliminary training can be secured for our superior young women, that quickness of sympathy and the general high tone of energy and intelligence, peculiar to our best American girls, will insure some years of good work in the lower city grades and the country districts, before the coming of the inevitable day when they are called "to

go up higher," and be, themselves, wives and mothers or single women of superior mark in the public or private woman's career.

But how is the New Teacher to be "evolved" out of this huge "protoplasm" of good, bad and indifferent people now at work upon the children?

First, by the enlargement and consolidation of our present State Normal Schools into genuine universities of the pedagogic art; so good that they will become the models for methods and the valuable exemplars of the New Education. The State now destitute of such a school will do the best service to National Education by concentrating all its funds into one such University, with broader scope and higher aims than any now on the ground. As aids to this central agency, every city of sufficient wealth and population should support a training school for girls; both State and city school being closely linked to the common schools of the locality for the important service of practice.

Of course, the prodigious demand for trained teachers cannot be met by the graduates of these State and city Normal Schools. It is probably too much to demand that the whole supply should be furnished at public expense. But the State can, at least, support enough of these valuable universities of instruction to furnish a model for all efforts in this direction. Then let public opinion compel every College, every superior Academy, and every free High School to establish an elective course of instruction in the philosophy and art of Instruction. The commanding influence of the State Normal Universities could be relied on to keep this department up to a high popular demand. The gain in scholarship, alone, to the large number of students who pursued knowledge with the view of imparting it, would be ample compensation for the experiment. In this way, by calling into activity the better teaching power of our best public and private establishments we might hope, in a reasonable time, to build up a real profession of Instruction.

I believe that time will come when the offer to teach a school of any kind by a person of no experience or education in the art of Instruction, will be as severely repudiated by the people as the offer to preach the Gospel, or heal the sick, or plead the law, by a man of no professional preparation. It may be that a man needs no special education to be an "American Statesman," in Congress or caucus; but if the schoolmaster and schoolmistress are experts, these amateur Senators and Representatives will not be so able to keep us perpetually in hot water and deluge the country with periodical freshets of civil suds, as just now. Flood the land with well-trained candidates for the most honorable office in the Republic;—the post of teacher for the young in the common school. Then since "few" incompetents anywhere "die, and none resign," as fast as the better sort come in, see that the feebler sort are relieved; and out of this "great revival" will come forth, in due time, the New Teacher, for whom we all wait and pray with uplifted hands.

One April day, while wandering through the Spring loveliness of the city of New Orleans, I found myself opposite a great school for the freedmen, and went in at the open door of the basement. There I saw a restless crowd of infants gathered from the street, the sweepings of the most hope-

less ward of the great city, under the care of one child-woman, who needed no certificate to assure me that the New Teacher had come to that corner of New America. She told me her story. "I was the daughter of a family of wealth and social rank in Cuba. In a late revolution there, the family fortunes went to wreck and I was left, an orphan, afloat in the wide world. One good friend brought me to New York, and another friend sent me down here to teach the freedmen. I went where I was drifted by a hard fate, as I thought, but was led as I now see, by a gracious Providence. For see what these little reprobates are teaching me! A year ago I had a temper like gunpowder and no faculty of self-control. Now, I must rule myself, or this mob will destroy me. And every day I am taking a step forward towards a womanhood of which I never dreamed in my father's house."

Was not that little schoolmistress a "mother in Israel," reading us all a lesson on the mighty art of government in these days of reconstruction upon which we have come? We can glare at each other out of the depths of our old hatred, in the Congress of the United States, a hundred years; and what will come of it all but new disaster, endless hatred, and final calamity for mankind. But if we can all forget each other's grievances, and turn our back on the past, while, with one accord we bend together and "take the little children in our arms and bless them;" if we can learn the sovereign art of self-control in the effort to train them up into a broad, intelligent, and loving type of the American woman and man; may it not be that, like her, we shall discover that no hard fate, but a gracious Providence, has brought us face to face with this supreme duty of the hour? And then may the old prophecy, like so much of the ancient wisdom of the world, turn out the latest revelation of the present hour; while in the New Teacher of New America shall appear the latest disciple of the great Teacher of souls, of whom it was said in the ancient days:—"The spirit of the Lord shall rest upon him, the spirit of wisdom and understanding, the spirit of counsel and might, the spirit of knowledge and the fear of the Lord: And shall make him of quick understanding in the fear of the Lord; And he shall not judge after the sight of his eyes, neither reprove after the hearing of his ears: But with righteousness shall he judge the poor, and reprove with equity for the meek of the earth: And he shall smite the earth with the rod of his mouth, and with the breath of his lips shall he slay the wicked. And righteousness shall be the girdle of his loins, and faithfulness the girdle of his reins. The wolf also shall dwell with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid; and the calf and the young lion and the fatling together; and a little child shall lead them."

After music Miss Mary McCurdy, Teacher of Elocution in the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia, read a humorous selection.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, a committee of five, on Necrology, was appointed by the President:—*Committee*, HENRY BARNARD, of Connecticut, ZALMON RICHARDS, of the District of Columbia, W: E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, and J: D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts.

At the request of Mr. BARNARD his name was dropped from the committee.

After a solo the Association adjourned till next morning.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 31, 1879.

The Association was opened with prayer by the Rev. C. K. NELSON, D. D., of Annapolis, Md.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, the Committee on Census, appointed by the Department of Superintendence at its Washington meeting, last February, was continued, and directed to report either to that Department or to the General Association.

On motion of the same the Committee on State School Systems was also continued.

Mr. EATON then read the following papers:

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONGRESS AT BRUSSELS IN 1880.

The Kingdom of Belgium celebrates in 1880, the 50th anniversary of its national independence. Brilliant festivals, exhibitions, and conferences will be held. It has also been decided to hold at Brussels an International Educational Congress, at which, questions relating to Kindergärten, primary and industrial schools, secondary and superior education, school hygiene, educational museums, etc., will be discussed.

A committee of arrangements consisting of 30 educators, has been appointed. Mr. COUVREUR (member of the Chamber of Deputies) is president, and Mr. CHARLES BULS, secretary of this committee.—(*Freie Paedagog. Blätter*, Vienna, July 16, 1879.)

THE VICTORIA UNIVERSITY.

The authorities of Owens College, Manchester, and of the Yorkshire College of Science, Leeds, have already taken the initiatory steps for preparing a constitution of the new University for the North of England, for which a charter has recently been granted. The council of Owens College have appointed a committee of their body, and on Friday they met in conference at the college in Manchester, with representatives of the council of the Yorkshire College of Science, for the purpose of considering a draft constitution for the new institution. The basis of the deliberations of the conference is to be found in the series of suggestions contained in an appendix to the memorial which was presented to the

Privy Council some time ago, but various questions will come before the meeting for consideration, including the power of granting degrees to women, and the better representation of the graduates and the teaching staff upon the board of governors. Considerable progress was made at the last meeting in preparing suggestions for a draft of a proposed charter, though each of the clauses was very fully discussed before adoption. When the conference has completed its task it will report to the council previous to the scheme being submitted to the law officers of the Crown. —(*London Times*, July 14.)

ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, offered resolutions in relation to the Higher Education of Women, which were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, then proceeded to discuss the paper of Mr. PHILBRICK. The following abstract of his remarks is taken from the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, edited by Mr. WICKERSHAM, and hence is presumed to have passed under his inspection.

MR. WICKERSHAM'S REMARKS.

Mr. WICKERSHAM stated by way of introduction that the social and political institutions of the Old World are so different from those of the New, that it is difficult to find a fair common standard by which to compare systems of education at home and abroad. He agreed with Dr. PHILBRICK that our own system has elements of strength and elements of weakness when compared with the systems in operation in European countries; but he could hardly agree with those who thought the latter predominated. He believed the American system on the whole is best for America.

As Dr. PHILBRICK had confined himself to pointing out the respects in which the American system is strong, he would supplement his paper by briefly referring to some points in which he considered it weak. But, first, he would make a few comments on the conclusions reached by the author of the paper, whose views should have much greater weight than his own, as his opportunities of observation had been greater.

Mr. WICKERSHAM said he would hardly agree with Dr. PHILBRICK that the National Bureau of Education is one of the strong features of our system of education in the United States, or one likely to be extensively imitated abroad. He had been from the first a warm friend of the Bureau, and had a high appreciation of the work it had done and was doing; but it is, in its organization, an extremely weak educational agency when compared with the Departments of Public Instruction in France or Germany. In these countries and in other European countries, the Minister of Public Instruction is a full cabinet officer, with all the powers possessed by our National Commissioner of Education, and with many additional powers. Indeed, such officers in Europe have almost as much control of the educational forces of the country as the Ministers of War have of the armies. Centralization like this is contrary to the spirit of our institutions, but there is no good reason why our Bureau of Education should not be a

full Department, and our Commissioner of Education a cabinet officer. Until this shall be done he feared thoughtful Europeans would be apt to consider our system, comparatively, rather weak than strong at this point. They may copy our methods of collecting statistics and publishing reports, but they will do it by an agency subordinate to their comprehensive and powerful departments.

Our schools are *free*. Every State in the Union has a system of public instruction absolutely gratuitous. This is not the case anywhere in Europe except in some of the little cantons of Switzerland. The paper does well in claiming that this is the strong feature of our system.

Nor are the public schools graded in Europe as they are with us. There are public elementary schools in all countries. The several governments provide much more liberally than we do for secondary education, high schools, gymnasia, colleges; and great universities are everywhere in large degree supported by the State. But there is no organic connection between these several classes of institutions. A boy cannot enter a primary school and thence advance directly and in due order to the grammar and high school, and it may be to the university, as in the State of Michigan. Elementary education in Europe is one thing and is under one management; secondary education is another thing, and is in a general way, under a different management, and in most cases there is an unbridged chasm between them. All this comes of the pregnant fact that in the monarchical countries of Europe it is no part of the policy of the educational authorities to lift the common people above the humble sphere in which they and their fathers have moved from time immemorial. For this reason the magnificent school organization of Germany would break to pieces in a day if applied in this country.

I am not so sure as my friend, Dr. PHILBRICK, seems to be that one of the strong points of our system is the settlement we have made of the question of religious instruction in connection with the common schools. Have we settled it at all? Is our practice uniform? We have completely secularized the schools in some places, but in others there are daily religious exercises. The general tendency would seem to be towards the adoption of *unsectarian religious instruction*, and the drift in some European nations is in the same direction. But, as I understand the matter, this is now substantially the *status* in Germany, Holland, Switzerland, and other countries; and, if so, we are in this respect comparatively behind.

The United States spends much larger sums of money for elementary education in proportion to the population than any other country in the world; and much better provision is made for higher female education here than elsewhere; but on these points the paper read by Dr. PHILBRICK is sufficiently full and strong.

Among the features of our American system of education comparatively weak, is the shortness of our school terms. The elementary public schools in Europe are open everywhere during nine or ten months in the year. Even in the poorest districts there are no school terms of three, four, five, or six months in length. Averaging the school term in all our States, it would probably not exceed five months. There is certainly no room for boasting here.

The tenure of the teacher's office is far more uncertain in this country than abroad. European countries generally require more preparation to enter upon the work of teaching; but when once placed in charge of a school, a teacher is almost sure of his position during good behavior. If in the country, the teacher in most cases has a house and lot in connection with his school, and thousands of teachers never change their location during their whole professional lives. This custom, however, is not an un-mixed good. Teachers abroad as well as at home, secure in their position, are apt to allow themselves to become rusty in their studies and to fall into routine methods of teaching that unfit them as instructors of the young. No teaching in America could be more inefficient than some I saw in various parts of Europe done by schoolmasters who had grown gray in the service. Notwithstanding the youth of our teachers and their frequent changes, I believe we do the best teaching in the world. Our teachers seem to have more versatility of knowledge, more flexibility of character, a more inspiring manner, a method that not only helps the pupil to learn present lessons but prompts the ambition to master future ones. I would rather intrust the average American teacher with a school, unlearned and inexperienced as he often is, than I would the average German or French schoolmaster though he may be a graduate of a university and have spent twenty or thirty years in the school-room. There is something in the free institutions of America, something in the very air we breathe, that fits men and women to become good teachers. Still, it must be acknowledged that the uncertain tenure of the teacher's office is a serious drawback, weakening the whole teaching force of the country.

Schools are better inspected in many of the most enlightened countries in Europe than they are with us. The inspectors are picked men and specially trained for their work. Their tenure of office is such that they can perform their duty fearlessly. The number of schools placed under the care of each is such that he can make his inspection close and critical. And the truth may be added that effective supervision everywhere makes effective schools.

In the United States the fight for Normal Schools has not yet been crowned with victory. There is scarcely a State in which their friends do not at times have reason to tremble for their safety. And yet with us, Normal-School graduates enjoy no monopoly of the work of teaching. No favors are shown them over others. They must win their way by dint of superior qualifications. In European countries educationally the most advanced, no one is allowed to teach who has not been regularly trained for the work. The policy of establishing and supporting a sufficient number of Normal Schools to supply all the teachers needed, is no longer questioned. The Normal Schools have no enemies but the enemies of the public schools themselves. They have quack doctors there as here, and in about the same proportion, but the government tolerates no quack teachers. Little children, at least, are shielded from the touch of the ignorant and the unskilled.

The nations of Europe give much more encouragement to higher education than is done in this country. High schools, lyceums, colleges, gymnasias, polytechnic schools, universities, all are in great measure under

government control and receive government patronage. Indeed, the great purpose of the authorities would seem to be not so much to make education universal as to educate *experts* in every field of art and industry. *Skilled leadership*, in the civil service, in the army and navy, in the professions, in shops and on farms, seems to be the great aim of the most enlightened educational systems of the Old World. In this country we allow our higher institutions of learning in the main to take care of themselves; there are men among us even who would ruthlessly strike down our partially-developed public high schools, while in happy contrast with our narrowness is the liberal course of nations abroad who "with one hand furnish elementary education to all, and with the other make every effort to aid the born leaders of society in fitting themselves for their appointed sphere."

These, it seems to me, are some of the weaknesses of our system of public education. There are others, but time is wanting to speak of them now.

Mr. WICKERSHAM was followed by Messrs. PHILBRICK and EATON, the latter presenting copies of French Reports on Education.

ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, then read the following paper designed for the Department of Industrial Education, which had been crowded out by the length of Mr. SPRING's practical illustrations of sculpture.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, OR THE EQUAL CULTIVATION OF THE HEAD, THE HEART, AND THE HAND.

When Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON gave utterance to that grand conception,

*"On earth there is nothing great but man;
In man there is nothing great but mind," **

he evidently had in view man as a duality.

Still further, in *this* duality, he ranked the mind as the higher, or spiritual nature—the body as the lower, or material nature; the mind as the gem—the body as the casket; the mind as that which should be cultivated,—polished;—the body as the mere vehicle or receptacle only, to be considered as the environment of the citadel, the seat of the mind.

And we find this idea coming down from time long anterior to HAMILTON, and even since his day, as is exemplified in the partition which is kept up by the doctors of medicine and the doctors of philosophy—the former claiming the body, the latter the mind, agreeing only in the determination that this partition shall be eternal. And we find their partisans following the same law of separation, contrasting and alienating these two, to the certain disadvantage of both the mind and the body.

What is needed, is first, to consider man as an entirety. As an entirety, so far as no one part shall be secondary to any other, shall neither be dependent nor independent, but shall be distinct yet united into one

* HAMILTON quotes this from an ancient philosopher whom he does not name. It was PHAVORINUS.—*Secretary.*

harmonious whole. And, secondly, to educate him as such. This education may be roughly considered in relation to the Head (the mental), the Heart (the moral), and the Hand (the physical man).

And now, in order to do this, of the whole range and vast extent of studies, there must be some "selection."

And here again arises the question: What shall we select? That which will best prepare the whole man for the active and real duties of after life, whether these duties be professional or otherwise.

To the learner, I would say, study that which will fit you for the selected business or chosen profession of your life; and to the teacher, teach that which will be the most beneficial, will be the most useful to your pupils, taking into consideration the vast fields of employment which lie spread out before you; and which from their importance and utility, will most likely draw to them the greatest number of the human family, but who can not, or do not, at an early age, select definitely their future vocations.

Turning to the census of the United States, 1870, and carefully comparing the occupations, "upon the basis of all occupations" being 12,505,928, we at once see that of this number there are engaged in Agriculture, 5,922,471, or nearly one half; in professions and personal service, 2,684,798, or over one sixth; in trades and transportation 1,191,238, or over one twelfth; in manufacturing, mechanical and mining industries, 2,707,421, or over one fifth.

It was, doubtless, to give those following industrial pursuits an opportunity to obtain a *liberal* as well as practical education, that the Congress of the United States, in 1862, donated 10,000,000 acres of the public lands to the several states and territories, to establish and endow colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts. Our wise statesmen saw there was a great disparity in the advantages educationally, as presented by the older colleges for the training of the professional classes. There were scores of universities and hundreds of colleges, but all for the sole purpose of educating professional students, Lawyers, Doctors of Medicine, and Doctors of Divinity; or institutions of high grade endowed and maintained for the education of the *one sixth*, while nothing had been done, except through the liberality of a few large-hearted and enterprising individuals, for the education of the agriculturists, the manufacturing, mining, and mechanical industries, trades and transportation, or in round numbers, for the remaining *five sixths* of all occupations.

Well might Prof. PERRY, of WILLIAMS College, say, that he could point out one hundred lawyers, who have exerted more political influence in the State and nation than all the six millions of farmers have done. Politics is the business of the lawyer,—the forthcoming statesman; and is it not fair to suppose that, in his chosen field of action, he should be skilled, and highly skilled too? Farmers, mechanics, and, in a word, the whole industrial fraternity, pay little or no attention to politics—it is not their stock in trade. Just as fair an argument could be made by stating that a few priests control the great bulk of the church, and, therefore, they wield more influence than all their followers.

I agree with President ABBOT that, "farmers, as a class, do not take the

social and political rank that their numbers and influence entitle them to." Nor do those following other industrial pursuits, that is, they have not done it, but that they may do it is the object of the industrial education now taking place and rank in every State and territory in the Union. That they may do it, that their influence and rank may be commensurate with their numbers, is the object of this distinct and specific and separate training given them in our colleges specially endowed, organized, and conducted for them by the various governments of the old countries, as well as the states of our own. And if we are permitted to run a parallelism between the two kinds of institutions, taking the rich and munificent endowments of the colleges and universities for the education of the literary classes and the centuries through which they have existed, and the results which they have accomplished; the industrial schools, with their meager appliances and short duration, will not lose in this comparison.

But it is not the object of this paper to *underrate* or *overrate*, to decry or magnify, but simply to plead for the industrial classes, equal chances, equal endowments, equal appliances—endowments and appliances commensurate with the importance and numbers of the industrial classes.

In our country, we need Harvard and Yale, Princeton and Columbia, and the Universities of Michigan and Virginia. We need these and more too. But we need, also, the industrial colleges, brought into existence by the act of Congress, July, 1862, enlarged, more liberally endowed, and more thoroughly equipped for the education of the industrial classes in their several pursuits and professions in life. Congress should at once, since every State and territory has accepted the donation, take steps to increase and enlarge the usefulness of these institutions. Most of them, owing to the unequal distribution of the land, are still without the proper means to carry into effect the full intention and scope of the grant. Few, indeed, if any, have the means to go much beyond the bare curriculum of a literary college. Some few are attempting, upon a small scale, the agricultural feature, while fewer still, if any at all, are attempting the mechanical department.

I am better acquainted with the status of my own section, and I know from a lack of proper funds as endowment [is] obtained wholly from the grant, little, if any thing, is attempted beyond the teaching of "such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." The military department is well equipped and well handled, the United States furnishing both the arms and the drill officers. Again, besides the glitter and glamour, the hope of distinction and its sure and speedy reward, the regulations of all these colleges make it obligatory that all students not physically incapacitated shall belong to the corps and perform military duty.

If anywhere, in these peaceful times, a choice should be given a student to *select* or *elect*, it seems to me, there is abundant space in the military department. I have heretofore written out at length and defined what I thought should be a proper course of instruction for these Industrial Schools—what branches of study should be set before the student.

This course should embrace the following studies as lying at the foundation of a practical, as well as liberal education:—

The order of study need not be insisted on, for here, as well as elsewhere, large latitude should be given to the student, in all cases regarding his preparation, his time, and his means.

A COURSE OF INSTRUCTION:

- I. LIVING LANGUAGES: *English, and French or German.*
- II. MATHEMATICS: *Pure; embracing Form and Extension; Applied; Mechanics and Astronomy.*
- III. DRAWING: *Right-Line and Free-Hand, Topographical and Design Drawing.*
- IV. PHYSICS: *Properties of Matter, Molecular Forces, Heat, Light, Sound, Electricity and Magnetism.*
- V. CHEMISTRY: *General Chemistry; Chemistry Applied to the Arts, Laboratory Practice, with Reagents, Blow-Pipe, and Spectroscope.*
- VI. NATURAL HISTORY: *Zoölogy, Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene; Botany, Geology, and Physical Geography.*
- VII. HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE: *General History, Special History, Political Economy, Rural and Constitutional Law.*
- VIII. MUSIC: *Vocal and Instrumental.*

I have interchanged the order: placing "practical" before "liberal" education. This has been done for a reason, because whatever insures the one must insure the other, for, whether we examine the courses of the *old* or *new* education, we find the same classification of the *same* studies. It is only *the how* these studies or courses are pursued—how they are taught—that makes the difference in the result, "Hath not the potter power over the clay?" "Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it: Why hast thou made me thus?"

Again, let us borrow an illustration—wisdom, indeed, from every branch of industry. The carpenter uses the same tool to do very different kinds of work. The same *saw* to cut *across* as to rip, to cut lengthwise, but he "*sets the teeth*," as it is termed, very differently; so with his *planes* and *chisels*, still they are all planes or all chisels.

So I conclude that it is in the direction of these studies, which are but the "tools" of the teacher.

Put into the schools and colleges what you would have appear in the people; put into the teachings what you would have appear in the scholars.

Let illustrations of the truth be taken from the farm, from the workshop, from the mason, from the calico printer; turn to account every example; show how this truth is used, or that fact is embodied in the every-day concerns of life. We must comprehend at once, and admit in the beginning, that the objects of the industrial college are very different from the objects of the common college; the former are for the education of men for an *industrial* pursuit, the latter for the so-called learned professions. The object and result of the curriculum college is culture, mental discipline; the object of the scientific college is *investigation*, and the result should be KNOWLEDGE.

To revert to the "Course of Instruction." It may not be amiss to set out how these several studies should be pursued; for example of the living languages, take the English. It seems to me that the language of MILTON and SHAKESPEARE is as classical as the language of HOMER and VIRGIL, and doubtless were a moiety of the time spent in our mother-tongue that is spent in trying to collect a little Latin and Greek, we should have, at least, better English scholars—more practical business men.

In the study of our mother-tongue we may profit by a remark of HERBERT SPENCER: "As grammar was made after language, so it ought to be taught after language." Words are simply symbols; they are the tools of the speaker and writer in order to express his ideas. Then to acquire facility to express—power to convey our thoughts—seems to be the object of studying our own language. This, like any other acquirement, can only be attained by constant practice in the language—practice in writing and speaking. The actual use of the language is, therefore, the only method to acquire it. As the apprentice acquires dexterity from the actual *planing and sawing*, so the student of English becomes fitted or able to speak and write his language by speaking and writing it, and that continually.

But while doing this, a step further should be taken, really is taken, in the literature, in the etymology, and in the history and philology of the language; so that, in addition to the facility and power of expression acquired, there will also be acquired the equal training or mental discipline attributed to the study of the classics.

French and German should be studied, as the classics used to be, as the repositories now of scientific investigations—investigations pertaining alike to agricultural as well as to other industrial arts.

Although I have adhered to the common division of mathematics into *pure* and *applied*, I think such division unfortunate, as leading to the belief that there are two kinds, and that pure is different from applied. This classification originated in the usage in teaching or studying pure mathematics as a means of disciplining the mind, nor do I doubt this at all; but I as heartily affirm that the study of the application of these mathematical truths also disciplines the mind; and, therefore, with the advantage that in an addition to the abstract truth gained only by the former, is added the application or the knowledge of how this is done. Or, to put it differently still, the solution of a mere problem does not increase the ability to think; it is the *thinking* itself that gives vigor to the mind; and hence, if the problem to be solved is a practical, and not merely an abstract one, there is a gain of the knowledge of the application.

Besides, even in the mathematics, "facts are before theories." Take the celebrated proposition of PYTHAGORAS (the 47th of EUCLID) and the history is, that PYTHAGORAS said he saw the truth long before he could prove (or demonstrate) the fact, that "*the square on the hypotenuse of any right-angled triangle is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.*"

And the carpenter daily uses this same principle in his concise rule—"6," "8," and "10"—in "plumbing" and "squaring," as it is termed.

One other illustration in what is called the higher mathematics. It is

known, and is now proved geometrically, that the area of the cycloid is *three times* the generating circle. GALILEO practically showed this long before his pupil TORRICELLI demonstrated it, but in a mechanical way. Having selected a piece of metal of equable thickness and uniform texture, he cut from it a piece in the shape of a cycloid and also a piece equal to the generating circle. Upon weighing these separately he found the portion representing the cycloid to be exactly *three times* as heavy as the portion representing the circle.

Cases showing that theories are really subsequent to facts even in *pure* mathematics might be indefinitely multiplied, but the above are sufficient for illustration. Then :

How mathematics should be taught in an industrial school is no longer debatable—its sphere is fixed, and the results will be certain.

The right line should be *drawn*—the ruler and compasses should be the constant companions of the student of mathematics "*for the carpenter stretcheth out his rule ; he marketh it out with a line ; he fitteth it with planes ; and he marketh it with the compass.*"

It is a beautiful idea, that the drawings or diagrams of all mathematical and scientific works are the same, regardless of the language of the text, and hence the French artisan can understand and execute the design of an American or German artist with as much facility as if it had been devised by the cunning hand of one speaking his own vernacular.

Drawing is the perfection of illustration, even of our thoughts. Parables are word-drawing, and hence their frequent and successful use by the Greatest of all teachers.

Drawing, therefore, should be taught in conjunction, and at the same time with mathematics ; is really an integral part of mathematics.

The order should be as indicated. *First*—RIGHT LINE ; *Second*—FREE HAND ; and *third*—DESIGN DRAWING, whether for architectural or mechanical purposes.

Physics and Chemistry : It is difficult to determine an order for these, they are so intimately related to each other, and so directly allied to every industrial branch that their importance cannot be overestimated in a course of instruction for practical education.

"The study of physics is twofold. It consists of two distinct yet complementary processes—the tracing of facts to their causes, and the legitimate advance from the cause to the facts. In the former process, called *induction*, certain moral qualities come into play ; requires patient industry—a conscientious acceptance of what nature reveals. The second process in physical investigation is *deduction*, or the advance of the mind from fixed principles to conclusions which flow from them, so that, in the study of physics, *induction* and *deduction* are perpetually married to each other."

Some one has not inaptly said "that physics is a science lying midway between astronomy and chemistry," and this may be said to be true ; that physics, as applied to the weights of enormous masses, is astronomy ; and as applied to atoms and molecules, is chemistry.

The subjects of physics proper are those which lie nearest to human perception ; the heat and light of the sun, sound, motion, color, electrical

attractions and repulsions, thunder, lightning, rain, snow, dew, and so forth. Through our senses we are enabled to examine these phenomena, that is, to unite the external world and the world of thought.

Chemistry: Somewhat in detail may be said to be that science which investigates the composition and properties of bodies, and by which we are enabled to explain the causes of the natural changes which take place in material substances. As a science chemistry is of the highest importance to mankind, since, by its investigations the practical arts are constantly improving. Chemistry is intimately connected with a great variety of natural phenomena. All satisfactory explanations of the causes of rain, hail, dew, wind, earthquakes, and volcanoes, have been given by the aid of chemical knowledge. The phenomena of respiration, the decay and growth of plants, and the functions of the several parts of animals are also explained in a satisfactory manner only by its aid. As an art, chemistry is connected more or less intimately with nearly every branch of human industry, and particularly with agriculture and manufactures.

In its application to agriculture, chemistry furnishes the most direct and certain means of ascertaining what a barren soil wants to make it a fruitful one, and also what ingredient any soil requires to adapt it best to any given kind of produce.

Our most common and useful articles are manufactured entirely by chemical processes. The making of soap, glass, bleaching salts, the several kinds of acids, and almost every kind of medicine, depends wholly on the manipulations of chemistry. The arts of the potter, ironsmith, tanner, sugar-maker, distiller, brewer, vintner, paper-maker, and painter, are also connected in various degrees with chemistry.

In a word, the arts draw from it with every succeeding year increased advantage, and the condition of mankind is elevated, and the world advanced by its progressive triumph. It opens to us mines of agricultural wealth in what would otherwise have passed for worthless refuse. It clothes exhausted fields with new fertility, by the addition of some failing constituent whose absence its subtle processes have detected. It carefully investigates the laws and conditions of vegetable growth, by which earth and air are converted into food for man and beast, and thus places us on the highway of sure and rapid improvement.

By the study of physics and chemistry we have opened to us treasures of power of which antiquity never dreamed; we lord it over matter, but in so doing we have become better acquainted with the laws of mind, "for to the mental philosopher material nature furnishes a screen against which the human spirit projects its own image, and thus becomes capable of self-inspection."

Says Dr. HENRY MAUDSLEY: "Of old it was the fashion to try to explain nature from a very incomplete knowledge of man; but it is the certain tendency of advancing science to explain MAN on the basis of a perfecting knowledge of nature."

With the researches and results of the labors of this and other distinguished physiologists before me, and believing, as I do, in addition, that we can understand the mind only through a clear and definite understanding of the body; of the man in his entirety, I think the time has

come for demanding that the curriculum of modern liberal education be so reconstructed that its courses of study shall have a more direct and positive bearing upon the most desirable of all knowledge—a clear understanding of the laws of human nature; and for this reason I have added natural history, as embracing physiology.

A term, however, rather limited, and I would prefer to insert as one of the cardinal divisions of the course, the scientific study of human nature, comprehending both physiology and psychology.

Although I have said much, and possibly that, too much in detail, respecting physics and chemistry and the study of human nature, I cannot refrain from adding a word or so in regard to *geology and physical geography*.

In this scheme geology and physical geography should hold a prominent position. Geology is the *history* of our earth. It will afford both pleasure and instruction to study these periods—to examine *these volumes*—to present them in comparative estimate—to note the difference “between the fancies of ARISTOTLE and the facts of HUMBOLDT—the conjectures of PYTHAGORAS and the observations of AGASSIZ—the ideal of PLATO and the real of LYELL.”

Geology teaches what is useful—what is desirable. It is important to notice that the construction of a building does not consist merely in the nice and beautiful adjustment of its various parts, but in the preparation of suitable material, and the working of that material in such a manner that the building, when complete, shall be handsome, useful, and *endurable*. Geology tells us that among Azoic rocks, the most valuable for the erection of houses and monuments are *granite, gneiss, etc.*, etc.

Physical geography begins, really, where geology ends. It concerns itself only with the present completed condition of the globe. “To us our own earth is the most marked feature of nature, viewed on its inorganic side; to us it is the planet best known of all, or rather the only one closely known, the point whence we draw conclusions on the whole universe, the resting ground for the glass that searches the Kosmos, to use HUMBOLDT’S word.”

CARL RITTER says: “The earth is the grand floor, so to speak, of nature; the home, or rather the cradle, of man and of nations—the dwelling-place of our race. It is not merely a region of immense spaces—a vast superficies; it is the theatre where all the forces of nature and the laws of nature are displayed in their variety and independencies. Besides this it is the field of all human effort and the scene of a divine revelation!” Hence the study of our earth, a comprehensive and systematic treatment of *the land, the water, the atmosphere, and life upon the earth*; the laws that govern the situation, extent, outlines, and relief of the *land-masses*; the cause, the extent, the connection, and the influence of the *great oceanic currents*; the *distribution of heat* upon the surface of the globe; the general *atmospheric movements*, and what is their cause, course, and influence; what laws control the *periods, distribution, and amount of rain* upon different portions of the globe; the general laws that govern the *distribution of vegetable and animal life*, and how all these laws are related to the character and well-being of the human family, should hold no second place in any system of practical education, unless it be to the study of MAN him-

self ; for, while science may claim to be "*the right interpretation of nature*," man is still THE INTERPRETER.

History and Social Science: These should occupy a place in the finishing of the English-language course ; should come as studies in the higher classes, and should be designed to afford a general view of the history of mankind and of the phenomena of the social organization and progress of the race. Should also embrace the history of the arts and sciences and of civilization, the philosophy of history and the principles of political economy and constitutional law.

Instruction here should be mainly by lectures, together with suitable readings from standard authors prescribed by the professor in charge of the department.

Music: Vocal and instrumental, with painting, come under æsthetics, belong rather to the ornamental, the accomplishments, but should occupy a place and receive that attention commensurate with its importance. It is true all cannot be taught to sing or to discourse sweet sounds, neither can all ever be taught the mathematics or the sciences, still they can be taught something. Vocal music should be one of the daily exercises, for this would give proper exercise to the lungs, expanding the chest, and really arming us to ward off pulmonary disease. The celebrated Dr. RUSK was of opinion that the fact that the Germans, as a people, are seldom afflicted with consumption, is due to the vocal exercise of singing.

We know that singing constitutes an essential part of their education. Apart, however, from this view, singing is a delightful pastime and a great preserver of good order.

I go further. The vocal organs ought still more to be trained, for the result it must have upon the power of expression. Too little attention is paid to this in the *curriculum*s for training in the so-called liberal professions. How lavish we are in the purchase of instruments of music, and in keeping them properly tuned and cared for ; yet this most wonderful organ, the voice, which God has given to every one of us, is left for the most part in utter neglect, totally uncultivated and undeveloped.

I have omitted from this "course of instruction" the Ancient Languages.

This has been done advisedly ; from no disposition to ignore or to underrate the classics, but from the pressing necessity to select from the great number of studies, those not only pertaining to, but, if possible, those directly contributing, to industrial pursuits. Time must be economized. Knowledge is what is demanded.

"To know well is to understand causes," and in no profession is there a greater demand for varied and extensive knowledge than in the arts.

The study of the ancient classics should be conducted in the same manner as the geologist now studies the fossils—to understand if possible, the character, condition, and peculiarities of the people once speaking these—to determine really their thoughts, their ideas. This is a pleasant and profitable study too, but it does not advance the knowledge of the present day.

The study of the Pyramids may develop some lost characteristic of the Pharaohs and Ptolemies, but is not profitable to American engineers.

The Pyramids, with their hieroglyphics, may do well enough for

Egypt—for Africa, but like CLEOPATRA's Needle they will not bear transportation—even their very substance will crumble and decay under the atmosphere of England or America. I have no quarrel with the antiquarian or the archæologist. If you have time, taste, and means to study dead Rome, dead Greece, dead Egypt, and dead Syria,—do so.

But;

"Is the acorn better than the oak, which is its fulness and completion? Is the parent better than the child into whom he has cast his ripened being? Whence then this worship of the past?" Where we were, is night; where we are, is day!

It will also be observed that I have insisted on the study of social science, general history, political economy, and have pointed out when these should be introduced, viz.:—As the finishing of the course in the English language; in a word, I have endeavored to be as consistent in the studies pointed out for the education of the whole man, as I have been earnest in my advocacy of the study of man in "his entirety."

Or, to put it otherwise, in life we have to deal with our fellow-man as well as with earth and air and water. By our experiments upon soils and our superior cultivation we may make "two spires of grass grow where one grew before;" we may make two bushels of wheat, or of corn, or of barley; we may double our produce, and thereby double the market, and to no purpose unless we can double the demand. The same may be said of our mining and our manufacturing; but we have besides to settle with the miner and manufacturer before our science or experiments can do us any good. Heat and light, electricity and steam are great monarchs; but they are powerless to aid us unless we can come to some understanding with our neighbors. Therefore the study of man in another aspect, in the social relation, must be taken into the account; his past, his present, and from these what his future actions will be. This is provided for in the scheme laid down in the systematic study of history, social science, and political economy.

Again there are numerous allied or kindred subjects of study which grow out of the main branches enumerated. A judicious selection of these must be made. Probably, too, the "course" itself, mentioned, may be too extensive for many students; if so a choice again must be made, and the branches selected that will aid *most* in the preparation for the future pursuit of life.

And here let me illustrate. The older College curriculums may be likened to a splendid banquet, with its numerous cloths and courses. The guests are expected to eat of each, and, in due order, adding at each change, to rich viands rich wines, and the result is, before the banquet is half over, many of the guests are sick, many of them are intoxicated with the round of good things of which, contrary even to their taste, and especially to good taste, they have been forced to partake. Few can drain the cup of HERCULES. ALEXANDER could not do it. When I look at the curriculums of many of our foremost Colleges, I feel sad for the young students who have got, somehow or in some way, to get through them. What I wish set before me is the American Restaurant, "On the European style," if you please: I wish a choice, however extensive the bill of fare. Our

industrial schools, specially, should present for their students a bill of fare of wholesome studies, and not too numerous at that; and even then with an option as between *rival studies*.

So much for a "course of study." Parallel with this, and at stated periods of the day, should the practical or Hand-course be carried on; Shop-work or field-work, or both, as may be selected; but under the same conditions and in the same way as the several studies, or Head-work. I make no distinction between an hour at the blackboard, in mathematics, and an hour at the bench, whether in *vice-work* or *lathe-work*. No difference between the hour in the field planting and pruning, in sowing and reaping, and the hour in the laboratory analyzing and determining the peculiar ingredients of the soil to be sown. These are parts of their lessons of instruction,—these add *practical* education to *liberal* education.

And herein does it seem to me, that the properly-endowed and liberally-equipped industrial school has the advantage over the common literary College.

The students of the former know, or have an opportunity to know, all in the theoretical or literary department, and the practical besides, or, to put it still stronger, the student of the Industrial School, not only knows how his instructor says a nail is made, but he knows how to make a nail himself.

That Industrial Education is fast gaining ground and importance can be shown from the programmes of this very Association.

At the first meeting at which I was present, at Detroit in 1874, only one paper on the subject was read, and that was simply about the "National Endowment for Scientific and Technical Training."

The next meeting, in Minneapolis, in 1875, there was organized of this Association,

AN INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

At the present meeting the programme shows that there are in some form or other five distinct papers under this head.

I do not know what induced Mr. Rickoff to present a paper upon "A Readjustment of the Common-School Studies Necessary," nor do I know what his reasons are, or his plans, but I know we must see to it that the Elementary Instruction, whether public or private, is largely fraught with the studies that lie at the basis of the Industrial Structure.

Colleges and higher institutions of learning can, and do, control the work below. The entrance examination, if held to and insisted on, benefits, not only the applicants for admission to these classes, but the whole substratum of schools, forcing their teachers and directors to keep abreast with the increasing requirements, by faithful study upon the part of pupils,—conscientious instruction upon the part of teachers, so that the thousands who do not enter college at all, are yet properly taught in all the studies laid down for the Entrance Examination. Our Industrial Schools should insist upon an Entrance Examination in kind, as well, if possible, as in quality, even more rigid than our Colleges and Universities. Then there would be no conflict between these institutions and the High Schools and Academies,—certainly none between them and the Colleges for literary and other professional training.

I do not believe in conflicts.

The conflict between Science and Religion, is simply a huge *aberration* resulting from the irregular reflections of the rays of light as they emanate severally from the theological or scientific side of the luminary. These conflicts, so called, serve as pretexts for discussion, and thus is kept up a perpetual war of words,—nothing else,—the earth moves on as in the beginning,—religion is religion,—science is science,—and the followers of each have space plenty, and time abundant to make good in their own judgments, their peculiar notions.

In educational matters we want diversity of opinion, and diversity of work. My lot has fallen on the side of Industrial Education, and I wish simply to magnify, to enlarge, to extend it; to supplement only, not to supplant liberal education, but to add to liberal education practical education. I wish to couple the education of the Hand with that of the Head, believing that they both will be greatly enlarged and benefited. I wish to put the same opportunities in the reach of the industrial classes, so that in their peculiar sphere, they may obtain an equivalent education with the literary and professional classes, in their spheres. Nor do I desire to do this by lessening the chances of the latter. I would not have one University less, nor one college, nor one academy less. I would only increase the number of industrial schools, enlarge the boundaries of the industrial classes, and induce them, *if possible*, to appreciate and embrace their opportunities.

In these discussions we are wont to catalogue and array the experiences, the successes, and the "transcendent" advantages of the schools of England and the Continent. Personally I do not appreciate these the less, nor do I mean to underrate their efforts, but as an American, I confess I feel prouder of my own country every day, and especially so, when I see the comparative results as exhibited at the various world-expositions, whether at home or abroad.

I trust I do not lack veneration for the past, or a liberal appreciation for the contemporary work of other countries, but I must be pardoned for my strong faith in our American institutions, literary, political, and religious, and through these, for seeing our manifest destiny as a nation. I would not if I could "unsphere Plato," rob Neptune of his Trident, or break the magic spell of Jove's thunderbolts—I only wish in this age, and in this era, and in this my country, in our great system of education a division of the labor,—but with equal endowments and equivalent advantages in all departments, suited to all spheres and conditions of society.

So far, I have said little, if anything, about the education of the Heart, or the moral man. It is needless to discuss this formally—it is so interwoven with, and inseparably related to, all education that it must be a constituent part of it. In the geometry of being the education of the heart should claim the dignity and importance of a *theorem*, but to my mind it is a *corollary*, following directly from both the education of the head, and the education of the hand. But to show that "*the course of instruction*" does not lack these branches, and these subjects which

cultivate the heart—the emotions, the sentiment of Religion—the necessity of a GREAT FIRST CAUSE, let us revert to the course.

Take the subject of Chemistry only: “The study of chemical science reveals to the mind a beauty and harmony in the material world to which the uninstructed eye is blind. It shows us all the kingdoms of nature contributing to the growth of the tiniest plant, and feeding the nascent germs, by the inter-revolution of their separate spheres. It shows us how, through fire, or analogous decay, all forms of life are returned again to the kingdoms of nature from which they were derived.”

Demonstrates to the scientific agriculturalist that

“That which is sown is not quickened except it die. That seed and plant, blade and ear, flower and fruit, leaf and bark, that sun and moon, earth and sea, brute and man, are from the same hand of Omnipotence.”

And here let me ask if the poet could declare—

“The undevout astronomer is mad,”

what shall be said of the husbandman, who “daily witnesses, under the influence of God’s chemistry, myriads and myriads of vital cells ferment with elemental life; germ and stalk, and leaf and flower, and silk and tassel, and grain and fruit grow up from common earth: ‘the bow of promise’ fulfilled, the ‘gracious covenant’ redeemed, *‘that while the earth remaineth summer and winter, and heat and cold, and day and night, and seedtime and harvest, shall not fail.’*”

“Does he witness, by a nobler alchemy than that of Paracelsus, the transmutations of the ‘bare grain, it may chance of wheat, or some other grain’—to-day a senseless plant—to-morrow human bone and muscle, vein and artery, sinew and nerve, and beating pulse and toiling brain—is he the witness of these daily manifestations—himself the subject of these miraculous changes—his own body the very crucible in which these wonderful transformations are continuously going on, and yet does he—can he doubt—can we doubt?—that—*‘as we have borne the image of the EARTHLY, we shall also bear the image of the HEAVENLY.’*”

But these are beautiful glittering generalities—they are panoramic—they address themselves to the eye and the ear.

Fellow-teachers, what of the heart? Of what manner of spirit are ye? Upon this subject we can occupy no doubtful ground to-day. I desire “no uncertain sound.” Prattling childhood found me at my mother’s knee; playful boyhood around the altar of my father’s humble fireside; strong manhood, student-life, teacher-life, citizen-life, have all found me upon the side of Christianity. Brethren, “we be the sons of one father, aye, brothers, the sons of the same household, ‘the elder brothers’ of our generation. Our words, our examples, our influences, silent as they may be, are set before a host of scrutinizing witnesses, who will note every act and word, and for which to them and our God we must give an account—when parent and child, teacher and pupil, must be gathered at the feet and in the presence of the Great Master, who knoweth the Head and the Hand only through the Heart.”

The taking of membership in the Association was urged by the President, the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, the Hon. JOHN EATON, and the Rev. G. P. HAYS. W. T. SEAL announced that members of the Association are admitted free of charge to the Permanent Exhibition at the Centennial grounds.

After a short recess JAMES M. GARNETT, LL. D., President of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md., read the following paper on

THE HISTORICAL METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

In examining the methods of teaching languages now pursued in our most progressive schools and colleges, the student of language is struck with a change in the methods of instruction as compared with those used even fifty years ago, or perhaps much more recently. It was then customary to learn by heart the inflexions of the classical languages, and the rules of grammar, and to apply these rules in reading, until the student was familiar with the syntactical construction of the language, when his attention was devoted chiefly, if not exclusively, to acquiring facility in translation and a knowledge of the subject-matter of the author. There was no instruction of moment in composition, and little, if any, in etymology, in the tracing back of words to roots, and in the origin of forms and constructions. Some of our older scholars are wedded to the older method and regret the change, saying that, whereas now there is greater knowledge of the structure of the language, and of its relations to cognate languages, there is less facility in reading it, and less knowledge of the classical authors as literature; there is too much grammar and too little translation. But I do not see why the one should exclude the other. It is certainly a disadvantage if our teaching of grammar and etymology should hinder the acquirement of a full vocabulary, and should obscure the literary merits of the classical writers. The two methods should be combined; the former will help the latter, if much reading is insisted on, and instruction in technical grammar is not allowed too great a preponderance.

But, we are led to inquire, what has caused this change? What has led to this more thorough study of etymology, and of the origin and relations of forms and constructions? It must be attributed to the revelation to the western world of a knowledge of Sanskrit by the English scholars in India a century ago, its eager reception by the Germans, and the consequent building up of the science of comparative philology within the Indo-European, or Aryan family of languages. The great German masters of this science have builded better than they knew, for little did they foresee all the consequences which would follow from their labors. Their term for the science, *vergleichende Sprachwissenschaft* (likening speech-knowledge), expresses the idea better than our English term, for it is essentially a *knowledge of speeches* which consists in *likening* word to word, form to form, in order to determine their common origin, and how they have come to be what they are. No such comparison is possible except by means of the oldest forms of words in any language, or group of lan-

guages. This may be seen from the use made of the Gothic language, in the Teutonic group, for purposes of comparison with Latin, Greek, and other members of the Indo-European family. Hence arose the necessity for tracing each language back to its oldest form, and the thorough study of its oldest period; and hence the historical method of study is the child of the comparative method. The present century first saw the birth of the comparative method of study. It was ushered in with the publication by BOPP in 1816 of his comparison of the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Persian, and German systems of conjugation, which was soon followed (1833-52) by his great Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European languages, and the study continued in the labors of POTT, SCHLEICHER, and a host of others, so that we can now boast of a dictionary (FICK's) of the root-forms of the Indo-European parent-speech, ascertained by the strictest scientific process of induction.* This method was not, however, limited to the whole family of languages, but was applied to its several members, and first to the Teutonic group by GRIMM in that *κτῆμα ἐς αἰ*, his Teutonic Grammar (1819-37), popularized of late years in the excellent little work of HEYNE, (1862, 2d edition, 1870), so that any one may now study for himself without an instructor the comparative grammar of the six principal Teutonic dialects. GRIMM's work furnished a model for the application of this method to the Romance languages in the work of DIEZ (1836-44), and here we were at an advantage in having the parent speech ready to hand, and in being able to trace more easily the historical development of the several languages. As a result of the application of the comparative method to these two great groups of languages, attention was directed to the historical study of both German and French, and the periods of Old and Middle High German, of dialectic Latin and Old French, were assiduously studied, so that it is now possible to learn both of those languages historically.

It was inevitable, from the position of *Anglo-Saxon* as one of the principal Teutonic dialects, and its inclusion in the work of GRIMM, thus furnishing a basis for its scientific study, that the historical method must sooner or later be applied to English. As was naturally to be expected, this was undertaken by the Germans, and we are indebted to FIEDLER and SACHS (1849) for the first historical grammar of English. This was followed by the works of MAETZNER (1860-65), and KOCH (1863-69), which last includes the most thorough treatment of the language from the historical point of view that has yet been made, but it still awaits translation into English. It was an advantage for the historical study of English that, about the same time with the publication of GRIMM's Teutonic Grammar, a revival of Anglo-Saxon studies had begun in England under the leadership of KEMBLE and THORPE. The first impulse to the study of Anglo-Saxon since its extinction as a spoken language was given by Archbishop PARKER in the early part of the reign of Queen ELIZABETH. Its study was prosecuted by scholars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and may be said to have culminated with the publication of HICKES's "Thesaurus of the

* In "The Academy" (London), of June 14 and 21 may be found a short translation in the Indo-European primitive speech (*Ursprache*).

Northern Languages," in the early part of the eighteenth century (1705). HICKES was the author of the first Anglo-Saxon Grammar (1689) since the time of AELFRIC, written in Latin, but a woman, Miss ELSTOB, has the credit of having written the first in English a few years later (1715). The study of the language was, however, neglected during the last century and only resumed when the Rawlinsonian professorship at Oxford was inaugurated at the close of that century. The fruits of this restoration were soon seen in Professor INGRAM's edition of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (1823), followed immediately by Professor CONYBEARE's "Illustrations of Anglo-Saxon Poetry" (1826), but here, too, a woman may claim a share in the honor of advancing this study, for Miss GURNEY printed the first English translation of the Chronicle (1819), previous translations having been in Latin. Not alone, however, in England was renewed attention paid to the study of Anglo-Saxon, but a consciousness of common lineage and common traditions led the scholars of Denmark to apply themselves to the study of the language and literature, and we are indebted to THORKELIN for the first edition of "Beowulf" (1815), and to RASK for the first Anglo-Saxon Grammar (1817) since that of Miss ELSTOB, which was translated into English by THORPE (1830), and long served its useful purpose. It would consume too much time to pursue in detail this revival of Anglo-Saxon studies in England by KEMBLE and THORPE, and its continuance by BOSWORTH and others, until we come to the well-known scholars of the present day, and the recent establishment of the professorship of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge, which is so worthily filled by Professor SKEAT. The study has been pursued to a much greater extent in Germany, and time would fail for even a passing allusion to all that has been done, but we may congratulate ourselves that owing to the labors of GREIN (1857-64), we have now easily accessible the whole body of Anglo-Saxon poetry, and the best glossary that has yet been published. Our own country also felt the movement and the study was inaugurated here, in the University of Virginia, by the influence of that far-seeing statesman, THOMAS JEFFERSON. It was continued by KLIPSTEIN (1848), and others, until its great development within the last twenty years, and its extension over the whole country, to which, without being invidious, I may say the greatest contribution has been made by the distinguished professor at Lafayette College.

Thus material has been furnished, and knowledge has been obtained of the oldest stage of English, which is the necessary pre-requisite to all historical study of the language. We must lay the foundation strong and deep by the thorough study of Anglo-Saxon before we can understand the historical development of our own language. It will then be possible to bridge over the transition period to CHAUCER inclusive, for we cannot spring at one leap from King ALFRED to CHAUCER, and we very much fear that the minds of the general public are still impervious to the beauties of CHAUCER. It is astonishing what erroneous ideas are prevalent with respect to the older periods of the language. We have heard of CHAUCER being called Anglo-Saxon, and the wish expressed that some one would put his works into "good English;" also of the idea prevailing that our Anglo-Saxon Gospels are not the language of ALFRED, which was supposed to be entirely lost. It is only within the last hundred years, since the

labors of TYRWHITT, that the knowledge of CHAUCER has been revived, and much more recently that any serious attention has been paid to the study of his works; and as to the transition period, before the publication of LAYAMON's Brut thirty years ago by Sir FREDERIC MADDEN, scarcely anything had been done for its elucidation. WHITE's *Ormulum* and MORRISON's *Ancren Riwe* (Anchoresses' Rule), which soon followed, together with a few other books, furnished additional material, but much remained to be done, when the Early-English Text Society took up the work fifteen years ago. The publications of this society have first rendered possible a classification of Early English dialects, to which Drs. MORRIS and MURRAY have devoted themselves with success, and with the texts thus provided we can now trace the course of that dialect, the East-Midland, which superseded others as a literary language, and under the hands of such master-spirits as CHAUCER and his contemporaries developed into Modern English.

We are now, then, for the first time in a position to teach English historically. It is no wonder that it has not been done before. The necessary texts were lacking; the necessary labor had not been expended by scholars in working over the material accessible only to them, and putting it in a form suitable for instruction. In the progress of every science and art there must be leaders who will lay down the principles, and humble workers, but no less necessary co-laborers, who will embody these principles in a form suitable for popular comprehension. So it has been with each one of the Natural Sciences, so that they now hold a recognized position in the educational curriculum. So it is in some institutions, and must soon be in all that will keep themselves abreast of modern progress, in respect to the historical study of English. This method has been long since applied to German, not only by scholars, but in the course of instruction in the Gymnasias, so that it now forms an integral portion of that course. It has been of late years applied to French also, as witness the works of LITRE, GASTON PARIS, and other eminent scholars, though to what extent it has been made a part of the course in the Lycées, we are not informed. It has, however, been used in the teaching of French in English schools, as the works of BRACHET, BREYMANN, and others, which are specially intended for school instruction, well show.* This method, then, is considered useful in the teaching of other languages, and it will be found equally as serviceable for our own. It is emphatically a modern method, but it is one which has been applied not only in the study of languages, but of the arts and sciences, of institutions, of beliefs. In aid of the investigation of these latter especially, the comparative method has been summoned, and with it the historical method goes hand in hand. In fact, the development of the doctrine of evolution, is but an application of the historical method. So far-reaching, then, in its applications, and so fruitful in its results, it is not strange that linguistic science also should have turned it to account, if, indeed, it did not originate it, and have derived much benefit from it. But it has not yet been made the most of in English, es-

*I notice in the Catalogue of the University of Wisconsin that the historical and comparative method is used in that institution in teaching French and German as well as English.

pecially from an educational point of view. Works suitable for teaching English historically are still needed, though a beginning has been made by Dr. MORRIS, in his books on historical English grammar, by Mr. KINGTON-OLIPHANT, in his "Old and Middle English," a most excellent work for teachers, and, in this country, by Professor CORSON, in his "Handbook of Anglo-Saxon and Early English." These works are very serviceable for the present, but there is room for others. The German grammars of English, already referred to, should be condensed and put in form suitable for teaching, or equally as good ones should be composed. A complete series of specimens, somewhat after the manner of MAETZNER'S "Old English Extracts," well annotated and illustrating fully the historical continuity of the language, should be prepared. But with the best helps in the world, nothing can be effected unless an interest in the subject is felt by teachers and school authorities everywhere, and this interest can only be awakened by the dissemination of knowledge of the subject.

Many reasons might be urged for the universal adoption of *the historical method in the teaching of English*, and the chief of these is its promotion of a more thorough knowledge of the formation and structure of the language, and consequently greater facility in its use. This knowledge, all will admit to be desirable, and the furnishing of it to come within the proper subjects of instruction in school and college. If we consider first the *vocabulary* of our language, we shall see the importance of this study. The direct Latin portion of the vocabulary can be readily distinguished, and more easily applied in practice, by a Latin scholar, and this furnishes one of the strongest arguments for the maintenance of instruction in Latin in our High Schools, academies and colleges. The Norman-French, or indirect Latin, portion is not so easily distinguished by a French scholar unless he happen to possess the rare qualification of a knowledge of Old French, although a knowledge of modern French cannot be dispensed with for this purpose. But the pure English portion, which one would suppose ought to be best known in its origin and history, is not at all explicable without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. A knowledge of German will be of service here, but its relations to our tongue are too distant for explanation of the derivation of our Teutonic words, although one who knows German will learn Anglo-Saxon with much greater ease. While Anglo-Saxon, or Oldest English, serves as an indispensable basis for the prosecution of this study, we are apt to err if we do not go further and learn the intermediate stages of the language, which will thus have been greatly facilitated. Many of our words have changed their forms as well as their meaning, and a knowledge of the transition period is necessary to explain the connection between the older and the later forms.

When we come to consider the *grammar* of our language, we shall find the historical study even much more necessary than for the vocabulary. In fact, we fail to see how English grammar can be thoroughly understood and its inflexions and idioms explained without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. It is almost useless to repeat what has been so often said, and is now the veriest commonplace, that all remnants of inflexion, almost all idiomatic phrases and relational words,—the link-words of the

language, such as all kinds of pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions,—all numerals, so-called irregular verbs, and most adverbs, are of pure Teutonic origin. Although the order of words has been changed, Anglo-Saxon grammar is interwoven with every expression of modern English thought, and necessarily so, because our present language is this Old English modified in the course of centuries by contact with Old Norse and Norman-French, as spoken languages, and later by the Latin of literature.

I cannot agree with some ardent Anglo-Saxon scholars that this modification has injured the language. On the contrary, I think that it has improved it vastly. It has increased its flexibility, enlarged its vocabulary, and furnished it with terms for the expression, in the clearest and simplest manner, of ideas on all subjects of human thought; so that there is no art, science, or philosophy, which cannot be as clearly and thoroughly discussed in English as in any language on the globe. The Norman conquest brought the English people and their language more fully within the scope of European civilization, and this contact enabled them to experience more deeply the effects of the development of that civilization, at the head of which the French stood for centuries. The subsequent introduction of terms of Latin origin strengthened rather than weakened the powers of expression of the language. I cannot think, as the Rev. Dr. BARNES and some others seem to imply, that the rejection of the Romanic portion of the language would contribute to its beauty or strength of expression. The chief loss which it has sustained from this external modification is in the power of composition, in which our language is inferior to both Greek and German, but it still retains considerable strength and facility in this respect, and this loss is not to be set against its gains in other respects. Of its two great elements the Teutonic is by far the most important, for without this it would be no longer English, but we are not willing to part with its Romanic element, and consider that, by reason of the fusion of these two elements, and of its close relations to both French and German, it is the better fitted for a world-speech, a position to which it is fast tending.

These admissions, to which some may, perhaps, take exception, do not make the historical study of the language less, but more necessary, for we must know thoroughly the Teutonic substructure and how it has been modified in the course of time. We must see at what points other influences have come in and to what extent the original language has been changed. For teachers especially, is this knowledge necessary, not only for those who will be called upon to teach English historically, but also for those who teach the ordinary English Grammar, which now forms a part of every course of instruction, both public and private. They will find new light thrown upon this study, and explanations of inflexional forms and of idioms will be ready to hand. It is now customary to insert in the school grammars Anglo-Saxon forms, and sometimes paradigms, but this seems to me like explaining the unknown by the more unknown, and useless for either teacher or pupil, unless the teacher will acquire a little practical knowledge of Anglo-Saxon so as to read common prose, which can be readily acquired by any one, and he will then see clearly the relations of words and forms, and will find this knowledge most use-

ful in his teaching, especially so if he will continue his studies even for a short time through the transition period. By the acquirement of this knowledge and the application of it in teaching, *philological study* will be furthered just as in the teaching of the classical languages. English can be made as useful a vehicle for imparting philological instruction as Latin or Greek, for tracing relations between words, the composition and derivation of words, their origin from roots and their relationship to cognate words in other Indo-European languages, and the germs and development of common English constructions. Indeed, it serves better to illustrate certain phonetic principles, which are of great importance in the history of all the Teutonic languages, but whose influence is not seen to such an extent in the classical languages. All the advantages which can be claimed for the study of language in general, can be claimed for the study of our own language in particular; and for the large number of persons whose linguistic instruction is limited to the vernacular, this must serve as the only medium by and through which philological knowledge can be imparted. Owing to the unfortunate tendency to restrict the teaching of the classical languages, and especially of Greek, if not to abolish it altogether in some schools, we need something to take its place, and nothing is so well fitted for this as the more thorough study of English. But this cannot be effected with the modern language alone, for the pupil will grope in the dark when the attempt is made to convey to him philological knowledge for which he has no previous preparation. He may open his eyes in amazement and endeavor to understand what appears to him as word-juggling, but he cannot assimilate the knowledge because he has no foundation on which to build. If, however, the teacher will adopt the historical method and endeavor to convey his instruction on this basis, not overtask the pupil's powers of reception and assimilation, but train the memory, the reasoning and the critical faculties to do their work gradually and efficiently, he will find, as the result, an interest in the study, a development of mind, and a much more thorough knowledge of the origin, history, and structure of our own language than he would have supposed possible without actual trial, for it would be a knowledge based on a natural and sure foundation.

It is possible to understand as far back as CHAUCER, say, on the basis of the present language, and to read his wonderful works intelligently and with enjoyment, but his language will not be *thoroughly* understood without further study. Professor CHILD, who, if any one, can speak with authority on this subject, suggests "the great convenience of a student being possessed of at least the Anglo-Saxon *inflections* before reading CHAUCER." "My own CHAUCER classes," he says, "have not that advantage, excepting a few individuals who choose to begin with Anglo-Saxon, and I find the want of an acquaintance with the original forms and inflections an obstacle, particularly as to the important matter of a rational understanding of the metre." This advantage will be appreciated by every one who knows Anglo-Saxon, and whoever undertakes to teach CHAUCER will find his labor lightened and simplified as regards an understanding of the language and metre, if he will first give his class an elementary knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. But for him who wishes to apply the his-

torical method more carefully, and to derive the greatest benefit from it, it is necessary to continue his studies through that difficult period in the history of the language when the Anglo-Saxon inflexions commenced to weaken and finally to disappear. He will find that this began earliest in the North under the influence of the Danish settlements and the incorporation of the Danes with the Angles as an integral portion of the English people. The South retained its old language longer, and strenuously resisted foreign influence. Even in the twelfth century, when the terminations began to weaken and the grammar to be sadly dislocated, we find the vocabulary still pure English, and it was late in the thirteenth century before we find an influx of many Norman-French words. The disintegration of the grammatical structure of the language went on, however, during this century, and by its close we find arising distinctly-marked literary dialects, each with peculiarities sufficient to determine approximately the locality of the writer using it. By the year 1300 it might have been a question whether the southern language of Robert of Gloucester, or the more northern of Robert of Brunne would furnish the prototype of modern literary English. A century afterwards, by the year 1400, ever memorable for the death of the "first finder of our fair language," it was no longer a question; for while the latter dialect contributed most to the standard English, it embraced also certain features of the former, and under the hands of the great writers of the fourteenth century, had taken on the form which, with comparatively slight modifications, was to remain for all time as the language of literature and of all educated English-speaking people. The understanding of these changes from the Anglo-Saxon of King ALFRED to the English of CHAUCER, can be made plain only by the study of specimens of the language itself in its various stages, learning the influences to which it was subjected, and tracing its development from century to century.

This is surely a worthy object of study and of teaching. Apart from the knowledge obtained and the philological training secured, the *literature* studied in such a course is not to be despised. It is customary to depreciate all English literature before CHAUCER, and to consider it as not worth the trouble of reading. But CHAUCER was the product of influences which had preceded him. He cannot be regarded as a comet suddenly shooting across the literary firmament. He was "primus inter pares," but there were others and chiefly LANGLAND, GOWER, and WYCLIFFE, who held no mean place in contemporary literature. He felt to a greater extent the influence of French, and especially of Italian writers, but his master mind made all his knowledge contribute to the enriching of his own tongue, and he could not rest content with being a mere imitator of others. He flourished, however, at the close of the period which we are considering; he was the culmination for a time of all preceding literary influences, and it becomes us to try to ascertain what these were which could produce such a result.

Love for our language and literature in itself, should inspire in every educated man a desire to know the beginning of literature in his own tongue. To know the Anglo-Saxon mind, of which the present English mind is but the outcome, we must study its products, and we shall find a

body of literature, especially of poetry, superior to that of any contemporary European people, and some of which will bear comparison with modern standards. The prose literature is not so valuable, but here we can see the early attempts at history,—in the latter portion of the chronicle character and events are painted with a right vigorous pencil,—the embodiment of law, showing the stern justice and the high appreciation of personal liberty which characterized our forefathers, and in the homilies, the expression of that religious spirit,—based on a knowledge of the gospels in the vernacular and so accessible to all who could read or hear,—which has ever been the heritage of English-speaking people.

We may trace the progress of literature from the Anglo-Saxon period on to the fourteenth century, and while we shall find it meagre and sometimes almost stifled, it never entirely disappears; but the English mind remains active through all the vicissitudes of external circumstances until it blooms forth in its own native strength and brilliancy.

To lead our pupils to take this survey, and to learn for themselves the development of our language and literature, is our part. Men, after leaving school and college, will not turn their attention to these subjects unless the impulse has been given earlier. To give this impulse and to lay the necessary foundation for this study is all that we can do, just as in the classical and the modern languages. No one hopes, in a school and college course, to do more than open the door to the treasures of classical and modern literature. Unfortunately it too frequently happens that the pupil permits the door to stand open and deliberately turns his back upon it. Perhaps he thinks that the appropriation of these treasures takes too much time and too much labor. But in our study it need not be so. We can give the necessary preparation in much less time than in these other studies, and when once given it is much more available for the prosecution of the study. I would then renew the plea made elsewhere * for the *historical teaching of English* in every school and college. Let the former arrange courses so far as time and place admit; if only back to CHAUCER, it will be a great gain, and teachers will be amply repaid. Such is the variety in our High-School courses of study, that each school must judge for itself how far it can pursue the study of the English language and literature. Only let it have some recognized position, even if something else must go to the wall, and however meagre the course, let it be taught thoroughly, and let the historical method be used as far as applicable. Above all let not the teacher be satisfied with knowing no more than the course requires, but let him pursue his own private studies in the same direction as far as possible, being confident that whatever knowledge he gains will inure to the benefit of his pupils.

But the college must go further and do more. It must elevate English to its natural position side by side with Latin, Greek, Mathematics, and

*In a paper on "The Study of the Anglo-Saxon Language and Literature," printed in the Proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1876, and in one on "Text-Books and Methods of Instruction in English," printed in the Virginia Educational Journal for December, 1878, and January, 1879, and in the Maryland School Journal for January and March, 1879.

the Sciences. Through the four years of the collegiate curriculum there is room for a full course in English, and a well-organized course should embrace instruction in each college class. There is room here to teach Anglo-Saxon, and time and place for it should be found in every college in the land. On its basis a thorough course in historical English should be reared, and pupils should understand that the teaching of English means something, and is not an ornamental appendage to the rest of the curriculum. When students realize that studying English requires work, just as studying Latin or Greek, and that it cannot be shoved aside into the odds and ends of time, and regarded as no great matter whether it is studied or not, they will have respect for it and take an interest in it. Any study that is too easy for a pupil will fail to receive its due proportion of time, and will fail also to develop the mental faculties, for they cannot be developed without continuous exercise. Moreover, if any study is not esteemed by collegiate authorities and put on a par with others both in the requirements for a mission and in the course of instruction, its honors and emoluments, it will be similarly regarded by the students and will naturally go by the board. If then we wish to secure efficient teaching of English, we must show that we esteem it as a regular branch of collegiate instruction, and require proficiency in it as in other branches for the attainment of collegiate honors. By applying the historical method in the teaching of English we can secure these several objects, and can train up a generation of scholars fitted to do the work still necessary to be done in the development of this study and in its extension, so that ere long there will be no college or university which will not have its chair of English, where the language of all periods will be taught well and thoroughly. By the use of this method alone, we believe, will this much wished-for consummation be attained.

This paper was discussed by Dr. FRANK TAYLOR, of Pennsylvania, HENRY E. SHEPHERD, of Maryland, Dr. JAS. A. PAXSON, the Rev. Dr. HAYS, EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., and Miss SARAH E. HUNTER, of Pennsylvania, Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Connecticut, and Dr. LEMUEL MOSS, of Indiana.

On motion of the Rev. A. L. WADE, of West Virginia, it was

Resolved, That the propriety of a Graduating System for Country Schools, be called to the attention of State Superintendents of Public Instruction, throughout the United States, for their consideration.

The names of the new officers of the Association were again read.

Adjourned to meet at the Centennial Building at 5 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met at 5 P. M. in the auditorium of the Main Centennial Building.

In the absence of President HANCOCK, the Secretary, W. D. HENKLE

called the Association to order and on motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON was directed to preside until Pres. HANCOCK arrived.

ZALMON RICHARDS, Chairman of the Committee on Necrology, made the following report:—

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.

Your committee would respectfully report in part, and ask for further time to complete their report at the next annual meeting.

We feel grateful to our Heavenly Father, that he has shown such distinguished favor towards the officers and members of this Association, in the preservation of their lives. Very few have fallen.

As there has never been a report on the Necrology of this Association, we have no record to which we can refer for facts; and as the membership consists of persons from every part of our country, many of whom do not represent themselves regularly at our meetings, we are unable in the few hours allotted to us for a report, to ascertain the necessary facts.

Within the past year, one of the originators, and perhaps the first, to move in its organization, who met with us in this city twenty-two years ago, and read the first paper ever prepared for this Association—though prepared by Prof. Wm. RUSSELL—has died. We refer to T. W. VALENTINE.

Mr. VALENTINE was the firm friend of this Association, and did much towards giving it the high character it secured at the first, and has maintained ever since. His name has been prominent in the work of the American Institute of Instruction, and of the New-York Teachers' Association. He was always ready to give his whole influence to aid in giving character to the profession of teaching. He, himself, was an example of one of the best teachers, and died in the harness; struck down with scarcely a moment's warning, in the city of Brooklyn, N. Y. He was a man of a true heart, consistent character, and high culture. In his death the cause of education has lost a true and an able advocate and friend.

We regret also to record the death of one of our warmest friends in Miss HENRIETTA B. HAINES, of New-York City, who had made herself a Life Member of our body of Teachers. We hope to be able to add more particulars of her life, character, and death, hereafter.

We can hardly expect that our report will embrace no other names of our friends who have been called away from their earth-work.

Believing that this Association ought to preserve a record and memorial tribute of all its deceased members, we make this partial report, and recommend that this Committee, or some other special committee be authorized to make further report at the next annual meeting.

Respectfully submitted,

Z. RICHARDS,
W. E. SHELDON,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
J. D. PHILBRICK.

Mr. RICHARDS requested those present to mention any deaths of mem-

bers that may be known to them and also to give any facts known to them in reference to the deceased.

W: E. SHELDON who assisted at the organization of the National Teachers' Association in 1857, paid a fitting tribute to T. W. VALENTINE, his co-laborer in that work.

Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE, of New York, spoke in glowing terms of Miss HENRIETTA B. HAINES, and especially of her Missionary labors.

On motion of J. ORMOND WILSON, of the District of Columbia, the report was adopted by a standing vote, and the committee continued.

Remarks were made in reference to having the report on Necrology complete.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, reported back the resolutions of Prof. ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, and recommended their adoption. At the request of Mr. WILSON, Prof. HOGG read these resolutions with explanations.

PROF. HOGG'S RESOLUTIONS.

WHEREAS, The Congress of the United States, July 2, 1862, donated of the public domain 10,000,000 acres of land for the purpose of endowing and maintaining colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts in each State and Territory of the Union; and,

WHEREAS, These all have been inaugurated and are now in full operation, but with few exceptions are intended for the education of young men; therefore, be it

Resolved, That this Association re-indorse the resolutions adopted at Louisville, at its regular meeting, 1877, as follows:

"*Resolved*, That it is the sense of this Association that the general government should, at an early period, look to the feasibility of donating a portion of the public domain for the endowment and maintenance of at least one institution in each State and Territory for the higher education of women.

Resolved, That this Association appoint at this meeting a committee, whose duty it shall be to draft a suitable memorial to Congress, and to urge this distribution of the public lands for the purposes mentioned;" and,

Resolved, Further, that this Association endorse both the action of Congress, as expressed in House bill No. 2059, entitled "A bill donating lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the education of females" (introduced by the Hon. ROGER Q. MILLS, of Texas,) and also that of the Senate, as set forth in a resolution offered by Senator JOHN T. MORGAN, of Alabama, viz.:

"*Resolved*, That the committee on labor and education is instructed to inquire whether it is practical in the establishment and endowment of schools of science and technics in the several States and Territories, and in the District of Columbia, for the education of females in appropriate branches of science and the useful arts upon a plan similar in its principles to that of agricultural and mechanical colleges which have been

aided by the United States. That said committee have leave to report by bill or otherwise."

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed at this meeting to continue this work and to bring it more prominently before Congress and the people.

Mr. WILSON then read the remainder of the report as follows:

The Committee on Resolutions has to report the following:

That the members of the National Educational Association express their gratification at the recommendations in favor of education made by the President of the United States in his several messages—also at the action of Congress in appropriating a part of the increased sum which is needed for the more efficient working of the Bureau of Education. And they most earnestly recommend to Congress that a liberal appropriation be made for the special purpose of enlarging the pedagogical museum which has already been commenced in that Bureau.

That the thanks of the Association are due to the Railroad Companies that have given us facilities for travel at reduced rates, and to the Hotels that have made reductions from their usual terms.

That our thanks are cordially tendered to the Citizens and His Honor, the Mayor, and the Board of Education, of Philadelphia, for the hearty welcome extended to the Association, and for the measures adopted to secure their convenience and comfort while in session.

That we return our hearty thanks to the several local committees of Philadelphia—the Committee on Railroads, the Committee on Hotels, the Committee on the Place of Meeting, the Committee on Finances, the Committee on the Press, the Committee on Invitation and Reception, and the Joint Committee, for their energetic and successful efforts to promote the interests of the Association and the public.

That we return thanks to the ladies and gentlemen who so kindly furnished the Association with music.

That the thanks of the Association be given to the trustees of Public Institutions—Permanent Exhibition, Academy of the Fine Arts, Academy of the Natural Sciences, Franklin Institute, Teachers' Institute, Institution for the Blind, Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, University of Pennsylvania, Girard College, Wagner Free Institute of Science, Mercantile Library, Philadelphia Library, Pennsylvania Historical Society, United States Mint, Masonic Temple, Memorial Hall, School of Design for Women, American District Telegraph Company—that have kindly opened their doors to us during the week.

That our thanks are due and are hereby tendered to Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, the retiring President, for the ability, impartiality, and courtesy that have marked his conduct as the presiding officer of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

J. ORMOND WILSON,
LEMUEL MOSS,
E. T. TAPPAN,
EDWARD DANFORTH,
W. E. SHELDON.

Committee on Resolutions.

The report was unanimously adopted, and ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas, J. D. PHILBRICK, Boston, Mass., W. H. PURNELL, Newark, Del., W. A. BELL, Indianapolis, Ind., and GUSTAVUS J. ORR, Atlanta, Ga., were appointed the committee ordered in the fifth resolution offered by Prof. Hogg.

The Secretary, still presiding, made an appeal for life memberships, etc., with the following results:

JOHN KRAUS, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

Mrs. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTE, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass. (\$10).

NORMAN A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Philadelphia, Pa. (\$18)*.

JOSEPH PAXSON, " " (\$20)*.

RACHEL G. FOSTER, " " (\$20)*.

LELIA A. PATRIDGE, " " (\$10)*, donation.

Those marked with a star paid at the meeting. Those who had previously paid \$2 for membership at the Philadelphia meeting were to pay \$18 additional to become life-members, and those who had been life-members on the old basis of \$10, become life-members on the new basis by paying \$10 additional.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS, it was ordered that all donations should be credited on life-memberships if the person making the donation should at any future time decide to become a life member.

W. F. PHELPS, J. HANCOCK, J. L. PICKARD, E. E. WHITE, G. P. BROWN, and W. A. BELL, each subscribed for 10 copies of the Volume of Philadelphia proceedings, and J. P. WICKERSHAM for 50 copies.

On motion the Association adjourned till its next annual meeting. Pending this motion, the Secretary called to the platform the retiring President, Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, who delivered a closing address.

Immediately after this address the meeting was turned over to the citizens of Philadelphia. Dr. J. A. PAXSON, President of the Permanent Exhibition, made a brief address, and called EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., to the chair.

Mr. SHIPPEN after making a brief address introduced Col. JOHN W. FORNEY, who spoke for a short time on the importance of the educational interests of the country.

Next Mr. SHIPPEN introduced HENRY W. BENTLEY, "a practical man and friend of EDISON," who proceeded to entertain the Association with the phonograph and EDISON's electric chemical telephone. His experiments were highly successful and were greatly enjoyed by all present.

Mr. SHIPPEN next introduced WALT WHITMAN, "New Jersey's favorite poet," who said he would make no speech.

The following persons were then called on for short speeches:—J. P. WICKERSHAM, JOHN EATON, ALEX. HOGG, J. L. PICKARD, Miss HELEN HOADLEY, of Tennessee, E. E. WHITE, W. E. SHELDON, and EDWARD MCPHERSON, "the representative of the Press in Philadelphia." All responded except Miss HOADLEY, who afterwards regretted that she did not speak.

As the meeting adjourned it was announced that the audience would be entertained by the performance of H. M. S. Pinafore by a company of children,

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department of Higher Instruction met in the Laboratory on the first floor of the Girls' Normal-School Building, Philadelphia, at 3 o'clock P. M.

The President, ELI T. TAPPAN, LL. D., of Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, called the department to order.

The Secretary being absent Prof. E. BENJ. BIERMAN, A. M., of Lebanon-Valley College, Annville, Pa., was elected Secretary.

The President made an explanation of what had been done by the Executive Committee in the way of preparation for this meeting.

CHARLES KENDALL ADAMS, LL. D., Professor of History in Michigan University, being absent, the President presented, and by request, read the Doctor's paper on

COLLEGE DORMITORIES.

The influence of College Dormitories in our system of education may be considered from two points of view. We may estimate their effect; first, upon our colleges as corporations; and secondly, upon students as individuals. It will serve our purpose to inquire into these different relations in their order.

I. Upon the welfare of the College.

A college cannot exist without students, it can hardly be said to be prosperous without a considerable number of students. To secure such an attendance, especially in the early history of an institution, dormitories may be an imperative necessity. Whether or not such necessity exists, depends, of course, upon the circumstance of each given location. The twelve or thirteen hundred students who annually seek the advantages of Harvard University, would probably find it difficult if not impossible to procure lodgings at reasonable rates were they dependent solely upon the vacant rooms offered by the citizens of Cambridge. President ELIOT remarked some years ago on this subject substantially, as follows:—"The question of dormitories or no dormitories is not an open one with us; dormitories are simply an imperative necessity." In other localities the same necessity, for the same or other reasons, may exist. Either the high prices of rents or the large number of students in proportion to the inhabitants of the college town may call upon the college authorities to furnish for their students the requisite accommodations.

Then, too, it may be urged that even where dormitories are not what may be called an imperative necessity, they are at least in some sense an element of power. They doubtless assist the institution in its effort to secure a hold upon public attention. They furnish an effective means of appeal to private generosity, for the reason that money contributed for a dormitory building assists at the same time the student and the college. Then there is still another consideration of weight. As human nature is, it is probably true that thousands of dollars may be secured for the erecting of imposing buildings bearing the name of the donor, where hundreds are wanting for the purchase of libraries and museums. It matters little that the most crying need of our colleges is an increase of the general fund for the defrayal of current expenses. Even generosity is not exempt from the weaknesses of human nature. The showy immortality offered by an imposing building with an imposing name is much more tempting than the sure and speedy oblivion of a bequest sunk in the general fund of the college treasury. The general fund may be, is indeed sure to be, the more important, but it is far less conspicuous. It is no very base characteristic of human nature that it desires to have its good deeds recognized and remembered. Such a recognition is afforded by a handsome structure, and even if the structure be erected at the expense of the donor's heirs rather than at his own expense, it still whispers the somewhat alluring promise of a permanent conspicuity and of a perpetual remembrance of good deeds.

It would be unjust to convey the impression that these motives violate essentially the predominant motives of the benefactor.

They simply have weight enough to determine the direction which generosity shall take. At most they are simply an additional incentive to incentives already nearly strong enough. Nor should it be inferred that no benefit is conveyed to the college treasury by the erection of dormitories. On the contrary, the general fund is increased by nearly the full amount of the rents to be collected from students. The sum of the whole matter, therefore, is, that while in other forms of benevolence the benefactor confers a benefit and soon loses the credit of his good deed, in this, he confers the benefit and preserves the credit. This last fact may not be regarded as important, but it is probably often of sufficient weight to secure bequests that otherwise would not be granted. There is, then, some force in the assertion that dormitories furnish an efficient means of appeal in behalf of colleges. If education consisted merely in good lodging-rooms for students, it is probable that ours would need to give us very little anxiety.

Another consideration of some weight in behalf of dormitories is the fact that the buildings help to impress the imagination of the people. It is probably true that the majority of people are ruled by their imaginations. We are not impressed by what things are, but by what they seem to us. It is certain that handsome school buildings are not without their inspiring influence upon the minds of children and adults. Children are beckoned on to the high school by a handsome high-school building. The same power is exerted to a certain extent by college buildings. Many a

boy has been inspired with a desire to secure a collegiate education by the effect upon his fancy of a view of the buildings of some college or university. Still further, it may even be said that many colleges lay stress upon pictures of buildings more or less accurate for the work of drawing students to themselves. We may think the device is an unworthy one, we may denounce it, we may sneer at it; but it still remains true that the imagination is powerful, and that all such devices are a tribute to its power.

Now take the country through, and sweep the dormitories away, how much would there be left of many of our colleges,—let us say to impose upon the imagination of either the wise or the foolish? Or, to put the question more fairly, if dormitories had never been erected, how much in the place of some of our colleges would there have been with which to impress the imaginations of our youth?

There is still another benefit to the college as a corporation derived from the system of dormitories.

It is in the fact that the life of the student who occupies a room in the college building is somewhat more closely identified with the college, and therefore, that his attachment to the institution after leaving it is somewhat stronger. How much weight is to be attached to this consideration it is not easy to determine, but it is, perhaps, not altogether without its importance. The student whose days and nights are literally spent in the college buildings, whose friendships and acquaintances are restricted nearly or quite to college companions, is quite likely to look back in after life to the days spent in college with peculiar interest and affection. The German student, it has often been noticed, acquires an affection for his teacher such as is seldom or never known in America, but he establishes no affection for the university as such. Students congregate from all parts of Germany to celebrate the anniversary of a favorite professor; but seldom to celebrate an event in the history of the university. The reason is that in Germany the professor is the real object of interest, while in America the object of interest is the college or university. Nor is this distinction a fact of small importance. Our colleges are dependent in very large measure upon the good will of their alumni; it is indispensably necessary therefore that the alumni should be ardently attached to the college. It is also to be noted that in a country like ours, where the professions are open to non-graduates as well as to those who have secured a degree, the tendency of our youth to secure a liberal education depends largely upon the representations of college life made by college graduates. It is even possible that the pranks of students with the traditions of which most college dormitories abound, have an inviting influence upon some who might otherwise feel a repugnance to the devotion required by a liberal education. If dormitories tend to strengthen a love for collegiate life, or to sweeten the remembrance of college days, their influence in this respect ought not to be overlooked or despised.

In the discussion thus far, I have considered the welfare of the college quite independently of the welfare of the student. There is a sense, it must be confessed, in which this separation of interests is quite unworthy of our consideration. *Can a college have any prosperity apart from the*

prosperity of its students? *Does it not seem pitiful*, that we should have to consider the means by which our colleges may *live*, and secure the attendance of students, when we ought to be considering merely how they shall *best instruct* the students who come to them? After all is it not unworthy of a college to ask any other question than this, How shall we best instruct those who seek our instruction? Surely the question ought not to be, How shall we make our students most warmly attached to ourselves? But rather, How shall we best train them for all the responsible duties of citizenship?

These questions bring us to the more important part of the subject.

II. The influence of College Dormitories upon the education and character of the individual student.

It is mere commonplace to say that all true education must be the result of individual effort. But while this is true it must be admitted that individual effort may be inspired or encouraged by companionship. If the constant association of students in considerable numbers tends to awaken or encourage a desire for higher attainments, we might at least *presume* that the companionship furnished by dormitories is helpful. But the experience of college officers will hardly justify this supposition. College students with us are accustomed to have definite tasks set before them, and their standing is made to depend largely or entirely upon the manner in which they perform those definite tasks. They have little incentive to do more. Where a working system prevails, there is an evident inducement before the student that he should not do more. It would manifestly tend to reduce his standing, were he to deplete his energies for his assigned work by applying them in other directions. The consequence is that when the lesson is prepared or the allotted task performed, the student seeks relaxation and recuperation for the similar task of to-morrow. But whatever the reason may be, the fact will not be disputed that whenever American students assemble elsewhere than in the class-room, their association tends to divert their attention from their studies, and does not tend to inspire them with greater scholastic zeal. It may not be easy to determine all the influences which make our students so unlike the students of Germany in this respect, but the fact is probably unquestionable, that they are unlike. It is safe to adopt this as an invariable maxim, that *all worthy acts performed by students are done by them acting individually, while all unworthy ones are done by them acting collectively*. Probably every college officer will admit that there are few things more disheartening to a teacher than the facility with which a crowd of rational students convert themselves into a mob. Experience shows that whenever a class, or a number of students from different classes, come together for a common purpose, especially if that purpose be the consideration of any imagined or real grievance of their own, there is no predicting the amount of folly and absurdity that will be committed. The crowd often, if not indeed generally, falls into the hands of the least wise and the least worthy, since it is these who are least under restraint. The most idle rumors are accepted as truths; and the wildest schemes are often the most acceptable. This is especially the tendency when any favorite member of a class or clique falls under the ban of the college.

authorities. At such times the most reasonable members are apt to be silent or take but little part. The most defiant attitude toward the college authorities is too often deemed the only course worthy of the spirit and courage of manhood.

It will probably be conceded that the most difficult problems presenting themselves to a college faculty when acting as officers of government, arise from the necessity of dealing with students in masses. Separate even the most turbulent student from his fellows and you find that he is a rational being. Talk with him privately, and you discover no symptoms of insanity; you even find perhaps almost to your surprise that he is quite capable of exercising his reason. You may even convince him of the correctness of your own views. But let him go from your interview to a meeting of his companions. If he does not fall straightway from the grace of your instruction, he is at least likely to fall a prey to what is known as the harmony of the class. Whatever may be his individual opinions, he ceases for the time to be an individual, and becomes simply a fraction of an irresponsible body. If the meeting, whether it be formal or informal, falls under the influence of the best minds, it is likely to be regarded as spiritless and tame; if it falls under the control of the more turbulent elements, it is sure to exert its influence in favor of disorder. Hence it is that whenever good order for any reason in College is threatened, the worst consequences are generally to be expected from the meetings of students for consultation. It is always fortunate if such a meeting does not turn out to have been possessed with the devil.

Then, too, the results of such consultation are not only apt to be the worst possible, but the tyranny of the decision over those who dissent from it, is most relentless. The welfare of the college even among the most reasonable of students is, consciously or unconsciously, made subordinate to the harmony of the students with one another. As a matter of fact the best elements of the class seldom protest in any other than a private way, even when a vigorous and united protest would have been enough to defeat the action.

It is chiefly for these reasons that the consideration of questions of college policy by classes or even by groups of students is to be deprecated. This would not be the case were the college a republic, in which all would have a voice in determining what the government should be. But a college is not a republic and cannot be. Students have no voice in the choice of college officers and cannot have. The very fact that students seek instruction in a given college is evidence that the wisdom of those who give instruction is held to be superior to the wisdom of those who seek it. But even if in regard to some subordinate matters it were not, it would still be true that the college has the right to determine the conditions on which its instruction will be given. A college is not a monopoly. No student is obliged to attend college, much less any given student to attend any particular college. If he is not pleased with the conditions he may go elsewhere; but while he remains he is under every obligation to accept of the conditions established.

It is probable that these positions will generally be assented to as correct; and yet it is not easy to carry them out, or even secure their adop-

tion in entire good faith. We are so in the habit of sitting in a kind of authoritative judgment on the acts of all those in positions of responsibility and power, that it is difficult to exclude the habit of reckless criticism even from those relations where no criticism whatever, or at farthest, none but the most considerate criticism ought to be permitted.

But the tendency in college life has set powerfully in the other direction. Students everywhere are coming to have a very positive opinion on all questions of general interest. They grapple cheerfully with the most difficult problems; and they solve them with the most astounding facility. And this spirit is but another form of that audacity which Mr. LOWELL personified in his,

“ * * * * * shirt-sleeved aid,
Who, meeting Cæsar's self, would slap his back,
Call him 'Old Horse' and challenge to a drink.”

It will probably be conceded that these peculiarities of student life interfere to a greater or less extent with the success of our work of instruction. Is it not coming to be more and more obvious that throughout all the ranks of society there is too little respect for the power of regularly-established authority? Are we not as a people in constant danger of forgetting that devotion to liberty is no more requisite to civilization than allegiance to law? If the tendency is in this direction, it is the manifest duty of educators to do what they can to correct the evil. The remedy is not easy to prescribe, but if it is to be found anywhere, it is to be found in our family life and in our schools. Not only should there be the most wise and positive instruction on the subject, but every circumstance which tends to aggravate what is doubtless a great and a growing evil, ought to be carefully pruned away. That the evil is great probably no thoughtful person will deny, that the remedy is easy no one will assert. But there is abundant reason to believe that the intimate and peculiar association of large masses of students in college dormitories, tends to lawlessness, and *pro tanto*, to an aggravation of the evil of which we complain.

In 1852 when Dr. HENRY P. TAPPAN came to the University of Michigan as its president, a considerable portion of the students occupied dormitories. The authorities of the University were under the necessity of devoting a considerable portion of their time to the insignificant details of petty but annoying violations of order. It was believed that these annoyances would in great measure cease to exist if the students were to be separated and distributed into the various private families of the city. Accordingly the determination was soon reached to devote the dormitory buildings to other uses. Commodious rooms for the Library and Museum were thus secured, as well as increased facilities for the work of instruction. For a time some inconvenience is said to have been experienced by students, but the supply of rooms rapidly accommodated itself to the demand; and after one or two years no difficulty whatever was experienced. Even when the number of students came to be as many as eleven or twelve hundred they all found such accommodations as were requisite and without especial inconvenience.

It is perhaps only necessary to remark that the consequences of the

change have been highly gratifying to all the officers of the University. Good order has been less frequently disturbed and individuality on the part of students has been promoted. The change according to universal opinion has been favorable alike to good order and good scholarship.

The following discussion followed the reading of Dr. ADAMS's paper. President GEORGE P. HAYS of Washington and Jefferson College, Pennsylvania, said:—

The paper asserts what is my own experience. In the early history of Washington and Jefferson College the students seemed to regard the destruction of all college property as perfectly lawful provided they were not detected, and nothing, for a time, seemed safe save what was regarded as strictly private property. The introduction of rigorous measures by the college authorities corrected these evils partially, and yet the collection of a number of students into one building did then and will always bring with it some of the evils discussed in the paper.

My own experience however as a student outside is not very encouraging. The home influence in the family where I boarded was not strong. The lady of the house it is true gave attention to the many wants of the students but beyond that nothing was done, and the husband met us but seldom.

My experience and observations in theological seminaries also confirm what the paper asserts.

President LEMUEL MOSS of the Indiana State University, said:—I took my collegiate course in an institution where there are no dormitories. There are no dormitories where I am now and I know of nothing that could induce me to advocate the introduction of them.

Though prominent men differ from me I am persuaded that where young men and women meet each other daily in the recitation room and are at the same time subject to the elevating influences of a well-regulated family discipline is much easier. There is less of boorishness among the young men and a higher regard paid to all rules of propriety.

President E. T. JEFFERS of Westminster College, Pennsylvania, said:—The evils are not all on the side of the dormitory system. As asserted in the Doctor's excellent paper to some institutions they are a necessary evil. My experience as a student in a theological seminary is favorable to the dormitory system. There seems to grow out of it a stronger attachment to the institution. During a recent conversation on the subject with a Rhode-Island college professor he gave his experience as entirely favorable to dormitories. I think, however, that the paper expresses the sentiment of most educators.

Professor EDMUND J. JAMES of Normal University, Illinois, said:—My experience is more extensive as a student than as teacher and in in-

stitutions where no dormitories were. There seems, however, from all I can learn as much if not more clannishness among the students of Michigan University where the dormitory system was abandoned years ago as there is anywhere else. I fully agree with Dr. JEFFERS that a certain kind of attachment grows out of the dormitory system which is not found elsewhere. Yet if an institution can do without them she does better.

President Moss of Indiana, asked :—Is the attachment stronger? Who will elucidate? Among the students of Rochester University where I was graduated, the attachment almost partakes of the nature of a mania, and yet we had no dormitories in the institution.

President J. L. PICKARD of Iowa State University, Iowa, said :—If the dormitory system can be conducted without the espionage that is usually connected with it, it is good. I was connected with an institution as trustee and instructor for nearly twenty years and the dormitory system became only a success after a most excellent woman became matron who took a special interest in each individual boarder, spoke of the students as her boys and thus introduced the soul element—the family system. I was a student under the dormitory system and was not properly treated until I became a senior. The greatest disorder prevailed in the boarding-hall and yet the President of the institution who lived in the building had no trouble because he did not care. Men would send their sons to this place because they felt sure that their sons were under the constant care of some responsible person. I do not think my friend Doctor HAYS was neglected if his room was swept and his bed made but I claim that some one ought to have cared for me. For the last year I have been where there are no dormitories and the people take an interest in the students and if they do not their daughters will. There is no antagonism between the people of the town and the students where there are no dormitories. I want the family system in a school and above all let us feel that under any system we want the home element cultivated.

President HAYS of Washington and Jefferson College, Pennsylvania, said :—My former remarks were in the line of President PICKARD's and my own experience I suppose was against it. The family or social element will wield a remarkable influence on the student. By distributing a number of students among the families of a town they will become more identified with the school.

On motion the President appointed GEO. P. HAYS of Pennsylvania, E. T. JEFFERS of Pennsylvania, and J. L. PICKARD of Iowa, a committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year.

On motion of JAS. M. GARNETT of St. John's College, Maryland, the Department adjourned to meet to-morrow at 3½ o'clock P. M.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

The Department met at the same place at 3½ P. M. Dr. TAPPAN occupied the chair. Prof. FRANCIS A. MARCH, LL. D., of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., read the following paper on

ORTHOGRAPHY IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

In none of our schools is the orthographic position more embarrassing than in our High Schools and Colleges. It is generally taken for granted that collegians have learned to spell; but every one who sees their written exercises knows how far this is from the fact.

Conscientious teachers are greatly troubled by this state of things. Much stress is laid on perfect spelling as a sign of a thoroughly-educated person, and professors often feel as though they have not done their duty by a graduate who cannot spell. They think sometimes that they ought to keep up the methods of the primary schools, and hold spelling classes and spelling matches; and have frequent examinations of the whole college in this art of arts.

Most of us, however, settle down in the conviction that there is no time for such methods, and that they would not accomplish the result aimed at. A student who has come to collegiate years a bad speller will never learn the 120,000 spelling problems which the English dictionary contains. The attempt would be sheer loss of time and patience. It is to be remembered further that while there are so many thousand words in the language, each person's own vocabulary is made up of comparatively few, perhaps 3000 or 4000, possibly no more than a few hundreds. And a grown man in real life is practically a good speller if he spells the words of his own vocabulary correctly. If he have occasion now and then to use strange words, he can look them up when he uses them.

From this point of view it would seem, that the common method of teaching spelling in High Schools and Colleges is substantially scientific and sufficient. This method is the correction of the mistakes in spelling which each student makes in the themes and other written papers which he prepares in connection with his studies.

If the misspelt words are simply checked in each paper, and the student required to hand in the paper a second time with the corrections made, every attentive student will learn and correct his own habitual mistakes.

To this the professor may add an occasional exposure to the whole class of the most frequent and most absurd of the blunders to which members of the class are prone.

If to this be added an examination at the close of each term, not on spelling in general, not on the recondite puzzles of the dictionary, but on the very words which have been misspelt in the essays of the term, a reasonable amount of attention will have been paid to orthography in its narrower sense, *i. e.*, the art of spelling English according to the dictionary and spelling-book.

The science of orthography is, however, well worthy of more extended study in college, and is every way fitted to excite interest and develop important thought, and lead to valuable practical applications. It treats of the representation of spoken language by visible signs, and includes a systematic history of such signs, and a discussion of the principles according to which they should be made and used.

The student of this science will learn about picture-writing first, and how pictures are abbreviated to what we call letters; then the principles of alphabetic writing, of which some of the most important are that a perfect alphabet must have one character and only one for each elementary sound; and that all considerations connected with the embodying of history and giving beauty of form are of little consequence in comparison with phonetic convenience.

He will be taught the history of the English alphabet. The Anglo-Saxon speech was reduced to writing in Roman letters by the missionaries who converted the people to christianity. The letters were used in their Roman values, and new letters were added for the sounds of *a* in *fat*, *th* in *thin*, *dh*, *i. e.*, *th* in *thine*, and *w*. After the Norman conquest, when the Normans and Saxons fused into English, a large part of the words of each race were difficult for the other race to pronounce. Scholars inclined to spell in the old book fashion, but many undertook to represent the corrupt pronunciation, often by ill-conceived combinations of letters. The Normans gave up the special Anglo-Saxon characters. Then followed a change in the whole gamut, so to speak, of the vowel sounds. The close vowels changed under the accent into diphthongs by taking an *a* sound before them. The old *i* as in *machine* has thus changed to *ai*, as in *mine*; *u*, as in *rule*, has given rise to *au*, as in *house*. The open and mixed vowels have become closer: *a*, as in *far*, changing to *e* (*i. e.*, *e*) in *fate* or *wall*, or to *o* in *home* (A-S. *hām*); *e* as in *they*, changing to *i* (*i. e.*, *i*) in *me*; *o* as in *foe*, changing to *oo* (*i. e.*, *u*) as in *moon* (A-S. *mōna*). Single characters have thus come to stand for diphthongs, and the long and short sounds, which go in pairs in other languages, are denoted in ours by different characters, and come from different sources. Intermediate between the old *a* (*far*) and *e* (*met*) has become established *a* in *fat*, *fare*; between *a* (*far*) and *o* (*note*), *o* in *not* and *nor*; and the sounds of *u* in *but*, *burn*, have also arisen. All these have no special signs. Five consonants *sh*, *zh*, *th*, *dh*, *ng*, are in the same condition.

Meantime printing was introduced with a force of Dutch printers, who set up from the manuscripts, as best they could, the same word being printed often with many different spellings on the same page. But the necessities of the great printing-houses gradually led to uniform habits, and these at last received the stamp of authority from Dr. JOHNSON'S Dictionary.

The people have long since ceased to feel any necessity for keeping sounds and signs together. Changes go on without any record in the writing; etymologists slip in new silent letters, on the ground of imaginary derivations; old monsters, fertile in the popular fancy, propagate themselves in the congenial environment; and, altogether, we have at-

tained the worst alphabetic spelling in the world. For the history of all these changes, see ELLIS's *History of English Pronunciation* (London, 1867); SWEET's *History of English Sounds* (London, 1874); HALDEMAN'S *Analytic Orthography* (Philadelphia, 1858); MARCH'S *Anglo-Saxon Grammar* (New York, 1870).

The students who have been made acquainted with such facts and laws may be continually interested in the application of them to the spelling of particular words. I take it for granted that they will study the Anglo-Saxon language and the great English classics, SHAKESPEARE, CHAUCER, CADMON, BEOWULF, according to the methods of philological study which have within the last ten years become almost universal in our higher schools of learning.

They will notice as they study these early English classics, the emergence of the prodigies of spelling, and learn their history and the causes which produce them; for sheer blunder has its causes always, just as truly as the fittest products of reason, and the exposition of man's blunders goes far toward his total history. They will observe and study, for example, the first appearance of *l* in *could*, of *s* in *island*, of *w* in *whole*, of *c* in *scant*, of *r* in *bridegroom*, of *b* in *limb*, *thumb*, *crumb*, of *ue* in *tongue*. They may pry into the *eig* of *sovereign* or *foreign*, or into all the mystery of *delight*, *righteous*, *shamefaced*, *women*, or the freaks of *accede*, *proceed*, *precede*, *exceed*, and the like. They may study the obscure vowel sound before *r* as in *sir*, *her*, *burr*, *myrrh*, *earth*, where we seem to have filled in with any letter that occurred to us; we use *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, or *y* with delightful impartiality; *friar*, *speaker*, *nadir*, *actor*, *sulphur*, *zephyr* run from our pens with equal ease. There are ten thousand words containing this puzzle, and no man has ever mastered them all. The scholar looking for rules among them might think himself sure that names of personal agents from English verbs end in *er*, like *defender*, *feeder*, *lover*, but he would go amiss in *beggar*, *liar*, *sailor*, etc. The Greeklings think they are on firm ground in writing *y* for Greek *υ*, as *zephyr* from ζέφυρος, but how about *butter* and βούτυρον, Latin *butyr-um*, *purse* and βύρσα, Latin *byrsa*.

Then there are the doubled consonants, all the time wrong for the sound,* and half the time for the etymology. We all see the point when the Rt. Hon. ROBERT LOWE, formerly Minister of Education in England, challenged the House of Commons that not half a dozen members could spell off-hand the word "unparalleled."

Such studies as these have a twofold advantage. In the first place the curious observation of these queer blunders serves to fix them well in mind, so that we learn to spell well in the old way.

Then they dispel the sacred character which has too much surrounded the standard spelling. They induce a reasonable judgment in favor of the amendment of our spelling, so as to make it simple, regular, and reasonable, according to the principles of the science of orthography.

Students thoroughly taught will find it easy to follow the fashion of the day among the scholars, and appear as Spelling Reformers.

* There is a handful of words with "held" or half-doubled consonants, like *in meanness*.

This paper was listened to with marked attention and was briefly discussed by President HAYS of Pennsylvania and Dr. GREENE of Massachusetts.

Dr. HAYS of the committee on the nomination of officers for this department for the ensuing year made the following report which was unanimously adopted:—

President—ELI T. TAPPAN, LL. D., Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio.

Vice-President—LEMUEL MOSS, D. D., Indiana State University, Bloomington, Ind.

Secretary—E. BENJ. BIERMAN, A. M., Lebanon-Valley College, Annville, Pennsylvania.

These gentlemen were also according to custom duly constituted the Executive Committee to lay out the work for the ensuing year.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department was called to order by the President, W: F. PHELPS, of Minnesota, who made a brief address.

PROFESSOR PHELPS'S ADDRESS.

After a vacation of two years we have again assembled to consider some important questions relating to the preparation of teachers for their important work. In common with the other higher departments of our public system of instruction, the Normal Schools have during the past two years been the objects of severe criticism; and exposed to the dangers of hostile legislation. The "popular sovereigns" who awake on some January morning to find themselves so far famous as to be members of the Legislature, are, unfortunately not all statesmen. They must justify the people's choice by *doing something* and so they fall upon the expedient of tinkering the school laws. For does not everybody know all about education! But quite as unfortunately, the people themselves are not always able to discern clearly those things which make for the welfare and glory of the country in the management of public affairs.

There is good reason for the conviction that the vital relations which education sustains to the general welfare and happiness is yet very inadequately appreciated, and that many truths deemed of prime importance in the early days of the republic are becoming in the minds of the people little less than stale platitudes. It is for these reasons, coupled with the financial stringency of the times, the greed of gain and the hostility to public education in many cases, that unfriendly criticism and hostile action have been directed to our Normal and High Schools.

Thus the opposition to both classes of schools has in many respects a common origin and a common spirit. There are not a few educated and influential men, who, while professing to believe in the necessity of elementary schools for the masses of the people, are yet opposed to the Normal and High Schools, without which there is no possibility even of thorough elementary instruction. If we could have training schools for the preparation of some of our governors and legislators in the elements of statesmanship, they would meet a great want and prove a blessing to

many who attempt to manage the affairs of a free people without understanding the business!

But with all the popular ignorance of the details of education there is yet in the public mind a degree of hard common sense which enables the people to discover that our Normal Schools do not come up to their requirements in the direction of *professional training*, but that they are duplicating the work of the graded and higher schools merely. Let the training schools and their directors appreciate this fact and let them bring the schools back to their true sphere and the opposition will cease and be succeeded by a cordial and hearty support. The topics to be discussed at the present session have a direct bearing upon the special sphere of professional instruction. They have been selected with this end in view and it is to be hoped that they will serve to emphasize the thought just enunciated.

J. C. GILCHRIST, Principal of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, Iowa, then read the following paper on

PROFESSIONAL DEGREES FOR TEACHERS.

The human mind, by its constitutional nature, reverences knowledge and learning. Consequently, the people have always paid respect to the learned, not to the men as men, but to learning and skill which they were supposed to possess. One of the strongest incentives in all ages to acquire knowledge is the ambition to secure the distinction ever awaiting the true scholar. Out of this principle academic degrees arose. They were a necessity of the exigencies of society, and have existed so long that it is difficult to trace their origin to any single founder or any single act. Indications of their existence can be found in the history of all ages. The possession of a title was useful to the masses in order that they might bestow their respect discriminatively. The scholars themselves would find in a title, both as to honors and emoluments, security against pretenders.

Degrees serve two purposes or functions. The first purpose is to give evidence that the possessor of the degree has certain attainments in scholarship and skill which are attested by some college or university upon the result of an examination conducted by its faculty. This is the ordinary degree. Of the same class is the honorary degree, the difference being that, in the latter case, the college or university attests the scholarship and proficiency of the party concerned on the strength of his common fame. The second purpose is to give evidence that the holder of the degree has the necessary qualifications for the practice of some profession or art, attested by some college or university on the result of an examination.

The importance of the profession of teaching needs no commendation or defence before such a body as this. Yet I am not sure that even this body of Normal-School teachers fully comprehends the potential magnitude of our profession. The cause of education, as a philosophy, now in its infancy and demanding growth; as a system of legislation, now incoherent and faulty; as a policy, now so capricious and often disastrous in

administration ; as a force in the civilization of the age, now so inefficient compared with its potentiality, is in the hands of the teachers. Who else would become the explorers and exponents of this interest ? The world expects them to sustain, to advance, and to cherish it. And it is a matter of pride that the teachers of America, indeed the teachers of the world are not indifferent to it. Look at this great assembly of instructors, who for twenty-one years have devoted themselves to the advancement of education in all its departments. Look at the American Institute of Instruction, and the Teachers' Association of nearly every State in the Union. These all mean individual improvement, concentration of influence on vital issues of the hour, broader views and more penetrating analysis of educational philosophy. The teachers have been devoted, self-denying, and earnest in behalf of their cause to a degree not exceeded by other professions. But, all along, it is plain the teachers have been laboring under many and heavy difficulties. Obstacles are in their way, hard to surmount ; restraints that greatly impede their progress ; disabilities that weigh heavily upon the mind and heart. Generally, the profession is not permitted to regulate its own customs, methods and procedures. As a public servant, the teacher is exposed to criticism by all classes, thinking and unthinking, qualified and unqualified. He is constantly subjected to humiliating examinations, even after years of experience, distinguished success, and the endorsement of the highest authorities. The best wages are grossly disproportionate to the necessary preparation for the vocation, the anxieties connected with its labors, the amount of work to be done, and the value of its results. The precarious tenure of employment, the want of a standard of eligibility ; the absence of prerogatives, honors, or securities ; isolation from the world, and the limitations of the teacher's chances for promotion, are evils against which he must contend.

The depression of the teacher is the depression of the interest of education, which is the interest of humanity. The encouragement of the profession, the placing it on a broader and surer foundation, is an enterprise that concerns, not the teacher alone, but the entire people. Now, we believe that a well-devised and well-administered system of professional degrees will do great good. Degrees, adapted as they are to satisfy the common mind have done much for other professions and certainly can do as much for us. They are highly prized to-day by the ministerial, medical, and legal professions. They know their value. Abolish the degrees and these professions would at once experience a loss of influence, which would be serious to their interests, perhaps disastrous. Give such degrees to us, and the decisive benefits, which the other professions enjoy, would soon be secured to us.

1. A system of professional degrees will make teachers prominent in society as a learned class. This result has attended their use in the past. In the middle ages academical degrees assumed great importance because they elevated the scholars of the times above the extreme rudeness of society prevailing in Western Europe. The prestige of degrees which we all recognize in this country, was not less influential in Rome, when her young men went to Athens to bring back academical honors. In short, the great men of all civilized countries—orators, statesmen, scientists, and

divines, have appreciated degrees conferred by the schools because they distinguished these men and enlarged their influence over society.

✓ 2. A wise system of degrees securing some privileges and emoluments, will prove a strong incentive in obtaining professional qualifications. At present, the rewards and attractions of the profession are certainly few. Invest it with more liberal privileges than our day allows: encourage it by multiplying chances for preferment: secure the entrance thereto against the inroads of incompetency and empiricism; give it the safeguards of stability and competency; open the doors of the civil service of the government and to distinction everywhere; place the successful teacher on a plane with our orators, our literati, and our military men: then shall we see untiring exertions put forth by hundreds to gain eminence in the pedagogical ranks.

3. A system of degrees for the teacher will induce a more perfect development of educational philosophy and pedagogical practice. To the love that many teachers now have for their calling there will be added the inspiration of ambition and the patience of investigation, because when the mind brings forth its discoveries and lays them before the world, there will be a reasonable ground for expecting appreciation and not the fear of derision and neglect. The teachers' profession is the basis of all professions and as a distinct philosophy is slowly ascending in the thought of the world; yet it greatly needs the impetus that an army of thinkers can give. Educational Science is now in its infancy. Our professional literature is meagre in quantity and quality compared with that of other professions; but we are perfectly aware that its boundaries are far-reaching though undetermined; and its plains rich and fertile though unexplored. They will be, they must be searched out; and the teacher will yet arise as an intrepid explorer, who will lead his forces into the wild domain and subject it to system and cultivation. Who will come to this work if not the teacher? Let the race be announced, the prizes prepared, and the contestants encouraged.

4. A system of degrees will soon remove or mitigate the evils depressing the profession. This statement is perhaps a corollary, easily deducible from the previous propositions and arguments, but I wish to set it off by itself. It is clear that competition of persons not admitted to the fraternity will be stopped; that useless and annoying examinations will cease; that the precarious tenure of position will disappear and more permanency will be secured; that the passiveness of the teacher in the administration of school affairs will give way to a recognition of his experience, counsel, and skill; and his isolation from public affairs will be exchanged for active participation therein.

The practical elements of this theme remain for discussion.

1. What shall the degrees be? Nothing seems so appropriate as the titles, *Doctor* and *Master*, for, as you are all aware, the word *doctor*, in keeping with its Latin derivation, was originally used to signify a teacher; and up to the twelfth century, we are told, it was the designation of a teacher, even in the universities; but finally came to designate a degree or rank in the learned hierarchy. I am in favor of retaining the title notwithstanding its appropriation by other parties. We can not afford to take

the English word *teacher*, for, to get the full advantage of a title, it must gratify the common mind by containing the grace and mysticism of a foreign derivation. Similar statements can be made for the word *master*. But how can we, by the use of degrees, get a clear separation of teaching from other professions by which these degrees have been appropriated? This can be done by some accompanying word of appropriate signification whose initial letter will differ from that of any word now in use for such a purpose. Such a word is Instruction or Education. Some might prefer Pedagogy. Didactics is excluded, for an obvious reason—its initial letter is now in use. You are aware that professional degrees for teachers do not obtain in our country, indeed not in any country, as far as I know. The Normal Schools of Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania are the only schools of the United States that give degrees. Iowa proposes to give a degree to graduates of the four-years' course, but, as her one normal school has existed only three years, no classes in that course have been graduated. There is no uniformity among the schools that do give degrees. Kansas State Normal Schools confer the degrees of "Bachelor of the Elements," and "Bachelor of Didactics." I am not sure but North-Missouri Normal School at Kirksville gives "Bachelor of Elementary Didactics," "Bachelor of Arts and Didactics," and also a post-graduate degree of "Master of Arts and Professional Teacher." Warrensburg, Missouri, confers the degree of "Bachelor of Scientific Didactics" on the graduates of the full course. The Normal Department of the State University of Missouri confers "Principal of Pedagogics," "Bachelor of Pedagogics," and "Master of Pedagogics." Nebraska Normal School grants the degree of "Normal Graduate." The Pennsylvania State Normal Schools give the degree of "Bachelor of the Elements," "Bachelor of the Sciences," and "Bachelor of the Classics;" also the post-graduate degrees of "Master of the Elements," "Master of the Sciences," and "Master of the Classics." Uniformity may not exist among all the Normal Schools of Pennsylvania. I understand that the use of degrees in this State is satisfactory. Full graduates of the State Normal School of Tennessee, at Nashville, receive the degree of "Licentiate of Instruction."

2. What degrees shall be given and who shall receive them?

In considering this subject, I propose that the fraternity be divided into three classes. First, the fresh graduates of our Normal Schools, who are prepared, in the main, for the schools of elementary instruction, including the country and graded schools. These persons might receive the lowest degree, which, I venture to suggest, may be Licentiate of Instruction (L. In.) The second class might be composed of graduates of Normal Schools and Colleges who have taught successfully say five years, and hold important positions in schools for secondary instruction, as our Public High Schools, Preparatory Schools, and Academies; also superintendencies. These might receive the next higher degree, Master of Instruction (M. In.) The third class might be regarded as composed of prominent educators, having served in the profession for at least ten years and hold positions in institutions for superior instruction, as scientific and technical schools, colleges, universities, normal and other professional

schools and schools of special instruction. These might receive the highest degree, Doctor of Instruction (D. In.) In this class should be included Superintendents of large cities and Superintendents of Public Instruction. The present prevailing degrees would, of course, be additionally conferred upon presidents of colleges, principals, chancellors, deans, and the highest educational executives. Around these degrees and the granting of them should be erected suitable limitations, securities and safeguards so that they can not be abused.

3. What privileges should a degree confer ?

First, all persons having a degree should be authorized by their diploma to teach in their respective States, and by courtesy in other States, without subsequent examinations. When they seek a higher degree than that which they have, possibly another examination should be held. What the character of this examination should be is an important consideration.

Graduates of Normal Schools are authorized to teach without further examination in Alabama, California—the new Constitution of that State may change this feature—Kansas, Maryland, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, and West Virginia. In Indiana they are so authorized on receiving diplomas, which are granted after two years' successful teaching, certificates being given at graduation. In Rhode Island "local committees may waive examinations." In Wisconsin, the graduates of the two-years' course, after one year's successful teaching, their diplomas being countersigned by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, are authorized to teach for five years, but the diplomas for the full course of four years, under similar procedure, becomes a permanent certificate. In Minnesota diplomas formerly possessed a legal value, as a five-years' certificate, renewable at the end of that time on examination by the Principal of the Normal School; but this feature was repealed. So far as I know, in all other States, graduates of Normal Schools are not authorized to teach by virtue of their graduation. This is wrong. It is oppression on that most worthy class, our Normal graduates; a suppression of all ambition and an incubus upon all inspiration. Let us abolish it. I was pleased to find an opinion against this injurious practice of ever-recurring examinations expressed by Dr. McCOSH but a few days ago. I could give the names of other great men who look upon it as pernicious.

4. Who should grant professional degrees to teachers?

I can go no further than to say that faculties of Normal Schools founded by State authority should be competent to grant degrees to the students of the same. It is evident that there should exist uniformity of degrees among the Normal Schools of the United States, and in the manner of granting them. It is no doubt well that the public-school authorities, the Superintendents of Public Instruction, or their deputies, and County Superintendents, should join the faculties in the final examination. But this is not enough. State Committees, acting in unison under the general instruction of a National Committee, should grant the higher degrees already indicated. Whether or not there should be formal examinations, I will not venture an opinion before this body. There is one principle that should be recognized as self-evident, *the members of the profession*

should determine who shall be admitted to it. The practice of other professions in this particular, should be the practice of our profession. On this we should rest. Let the professional teachers of the country manage their own business and let the law sanction their transactions.

It has come to be understood in all the great centres of activity and thought that the teacher is the chief force in the educational system. The selection of this theme, Professional Degrees for Teachers by the President of this Section, seems to be very opportune. In this progress of educational efforts prevailing in other countries it has become prominent. Prof. MICKLEJOHN, Professor of the Theory, History, and Practice of Education in the University of St. Andrews, Scotland, is engaged in earnest effort "to make teaching a learned profession into which there shall be a difficult and discriminating entrance, and in which there shall be a career after the teacher has entered it." A chair of Education has also been established in the University of Edinburgh. The University of Cambridge has taken an important step toward a similar professorship. At the next session of Parliament a bill will be presented for the organization of the work of teaching and the workers. Movements in the same direction are found in France and Germany. The United States are not lagging in this race. Initiatory steps in some of our universities and colleges have been taken for the founding of chairs of Pedagogy and Didactics. Such a chair has existed for several years in Iowa State University. The University of Michigan has very recently established a chair of Didactics. The conviction is becoming deeper in the American mind that Education is an important science, but that it needs cultivation; that pedagogy is a profession of great breadth, but that its growth is awaiting friendly aid. This movement of the public mind is destined to effect great results. ✓

In conclusion, I beg leave to suggest that this branch of the National Educational Association choose a committee of five to prepare a plan for Professional Degrees for Teachers in the United States, and regulations for the granting of the same, and report at the next meeting of this body.

An animated discussion followed the reading of this paper. *W. H.*

DISCUSSION OF MR. GILCHRIST'S PAPER.

Professor BROOKS, of the Millersville Normal School, of Pennsylvania, said that there had been a time in which he was in favor of degrees for teachers, but his enthusiasm was not now so great; he was doubtful in how far the conferring of degrees might remove the difficulties and dangers of the profession; he was, however, upon the whole, in favor of them. All arguments advanced for the giving of degrees in any profession hold here. Our Normal Schools do not, however, seem to be in a position to bestow degrees that would really confer honor, and inferior degrees would tend to degrade rather than to elevate.

W. N. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., said he desired to use all methods calculated to make entrance into the profession easy and *safe*. It is hard

to get rid of incompetent teachers. The question must be asked, How did they get into the profession? We cannot be too particular about requirements for entrance.

Commissioner EATON, at this point, called the attention of the Department to the report of Dr. DA MOTTA, of Brazil, Minister of Public Instruction in that country, on the Normal Schools of the United States. The work, published in two volumes, contained an account of the location and economy of our Normal Schools, together with courses of study, and copies of examination-papers from the St. Louis and other Normal Schools. Dr. DA MOTTA was anxious that his work should meet the approval of American educators.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, stated that he had received a similar letter from the Brazilian Minister of Education, together with a copy of his book, with reference to whose value he desired the opinion of American normal workers.

✓ The original discussion being resumed, Dr. MAYO, of Springfield, Mass., said that the value of degrees was in inverse proportion to the ease with which they were obtained. In his own profession nothing was easier to obtain than the title D. D. Teachers themselves are not free from blame for the present position of the profession. Comparatively few attend meetings of this kind; they do not defend their own system. A new educational system has developed itself in the last twenty years, of which many persons are ignorant; out of their ignorance grows opposition to the schools. Let the teachers properly represent their profession, and they will convince these people.

Miss GRACE C. BIBB, of the University of Missouri, spoke of the degrees conferred in the Normal Department of that institution, and explained that these degrees were contemplated in the courses of instruction: an elementary degree, given upon completion of a two-years' course, designed to prepare for the common schools of the State; a degree given as supplementary to a full academic course, and now involving a year of professional training in addition to the work required for the degree in one of the four academic courses of science, arts, letters, or philosophy. A third, of extremely difficult acquisition, very rarely bestowed, and implying extraordinary scholarship and ability. These degrees are respectively, Principal, Bachelor, Master in Pedagogics,—as stated by the essayist.

✓ Prof. JOHN MICKLEBOROUGH, principal of the Cincinnati Normal School, said it was not evident to his mind that the mere conferring of degrees would, as had been suggested, add to the length of the teacher's tenure of office; this benefit, as well as others hoped for, could only follow the giving of degrees worthy to be honored. If degrees are given, they must mean something.

Professor PHELPS, President of the Department, said that in his opinion an adjustment of all these vexed questions would be reached with the progress of the profession.

Mr. T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of West Virginia, said that this, like most other questions, might easily be carried to extremes; in avoiding Scylla, we fall into Charybdis. While there are innumerable applicants for positions in cities, in many country places the teacher has to be sought. Many of those teachers securing positions do not do satisfactory work,—there are many evils to be remedied. There is danger from too many Normal Schools as well as from too few; from too high a standard as well as from one too low. We need a deeper professional training, rather than wider literary culture. The belief of the speaker was that professional degrees will aid in bringing about proper professional zeal. West Virginia, in addition to the States named, confers the degree of Normal Graduate, but this is not considered of much importance. Persons can teach well in the primary schools when professionally trained for it by experience or normal drill, without possessing the literary qualifications necessary for the degree of A. M., or even of A. B., and it is folly to expect that any large number of our primary teachers can possess these acquirements. The speaker then went on to suggest the degrees which might with propriety be given in recognition of superior qualifications.

The President announced EDWARD BROOKS, of Pennsylvania, J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa, and GRACE C. BIBB, of Missouri, as committee on Nomination of Officers.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

The President called the Department to order, and after a statement that the absence of persons who had promised to read papers compelled a change of programme, Prof. LEWIS McLOUTH, of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Mich., proceeded to read the following paper, entitled

A CONTRIBUTION TO THE QUESTION OF PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Mr. President :

There is a science underlying every art. Out of fixed, underlying principles every art grows, and becomes an expression of those principles. Art grows *unconsciously* out of these principles; because they do not become manifest till expressed in art. *Consciously*, on the other hand, science grows out of art. As WHEWELL says, "The principles which Art Involves, Science Evolves." Art, at last, when perfected, becomes conscious of these correlated principles, and thereby is able to work *rationally*, to foresee results, and to select and attain those that are desired.

For the perfect practice of an art then,—the highest and best practice,—

there must be two kinds of knowledge: A knowledge of processes and a knowledge of the principles or laws that underlie and control these processes. For practical purposes the first,—knowledge of processes,—is most important; though for the highest exemplification of art both are necessary.

These truths apply in *all* human arts and occupations,—in agriculture, carpentry, stock-breeding, and all the other humbler pursuits; they apply to law, to statesmanship, and to the fine arts; to *teaching as an art and as a science they also apply.*

Now, however, it may be for the humbler callings, at least for all the higher pursuits of men,—such as we denominate the professions,—for the practice of law and medicine and music and oratory, as well as for teaching, two kinds of preparation are needed: A *general* and a *special* preparation. The general preparation is the general development and discipline of the powers for the sake of character and culture. The special preparation is to give skill in the processes of the particular art to be cultivated, and knowledge of the scientific principles that fundamentally control and give form to those processes.

The general preparation is, or may be, mostly the same for all the professions; the special preparation must be as varied as the different professions themselves. The general preparation,—i. e., character and culture,—is given by the general schools of all grades and by all educating agencies. The work of making the special preparation itself, even, is an educating agent, and so more or less contributes to the general preparation; but conversely the work of general education contributes little directly to special preparation. This special preparation has been made in the past by apprenticeship under special masters of the different arts or professions, more lately in technical and professional schools. Schools of medicine, of music, of agriculture, of engineering, of law, and of theology have thus been founded; and so Normal Schools have been established presumably to furnish necessary *special* training to those who elect to follow the calling of teacher.

But, although the art of teaching is perhaps the oldest of all arts, and although it is one of the most difficult as well as important of all, still its correlated science has not been yet very fully elaborated. Teachers have mostly done their work empirically,—have, so to speak, worked by “the rule o’ thumb.” Zeal, honesty, and general intelligence,—those qualifications that are regarded as constituting only the *general* preparation for the other professions,—have been thought sufficient for the work of teaching. So teaching has not yet been generally recognized as a profession. So Normal Schools have been standing on uncertain ground, not quite knowing their own function, and by many not being recognized as having any.

When the educational tide-wave ran high, when the people were prosperous, or thought themselves so, Normal Schools, public and private, were established in great numbers, often by men who hardly knew their own purposes, except in a vague and general way.

In the newer States sometimes local emulation has been the chief ex-

citing cause. If one town is selected as the seat of a prospective State University, another must have the Normal School, and still another gets the State Prison. If, indeed, there are several ambitious and influential towns, there may be several Normal Schools. But after a time comes a revulsion. Debts, both municipal and private, that were easily contracted are not so easily paid. Business languishes; rich men become poor; extravagance retrenches. Taxes are high and hard to collect; wages and prices are low. Men question and scrutinize every private and public expenditure. Then the Normal Schools do not escape. Their nondescript function, and the uncertain ground on which they stand have generally made them, among public educational institutions, the first to receive attack. Governors have pronounced against them in their messages; legislative committees have reported adversely, or have been compelled to make labored defence, and educators themselves have not always refrained from questioning their right to be. Such has been and is the opposition that some have been closed, many have been compelled to continue under greatly shortened sail, while all have been anxiously looking about for safer moorings.

Now the opponents of the Normal Schools, neglecting the large class who are actuated by parsimony alone, may be divided into two classes:—

First—Those who,—often among teachers themselves,—deny or ignore a science of teaching. These are they who believe that the only qualifications a teacher needs are academical knowledge and a good character; and that skill comes only and wholly by practice. There are many teachers who tacitly take this view and a few who openly avow it. Their own skill, whatever it is, they have acquired by practice, and without previous special training. They have learned the trade by trial, and have never studied or analyzed their own methods of procedure. Not believing in any but a general preparation for the work of teaching, they, of course, do not see the need of Normal Schools. This class also includes many in other professions, who are influential, and who in most matters are intelligent, but who have never given this matter any attentive study. Many such find their way into the State legislatures, and if they do not oppose the Normal Schools, support them only in a kind of tolerant way, because of their general faith in *all* educational means and measures, and because of their general desire to favor everything bearing the name of school.

The *second* class of opponents is composed of those who, while they believe in the need of special professional training for teachers, do not believe the Normal Schools are generally doing so exclusively as they should the kind of work for which they conceive these schools to have been established. Looking over Normal-School courses of study, and finding at most not more than ten per cent of their work such as bears directly upon the special training of teachers, while the other nine-tenths are directed towards general academical acquirements,—to the teaching of language, literature, and science,—they fail to see sufficient distinctive difference between the Normal Schools and good high schools and academies, to justify the existence of the former. Believing thoroughly in scholastic attainments as a preparation for the teacher's work, they yet believe in

✓ another—a more special preparation. The general preparation,—the general scholarship,—they believe should be given by the general schools, the academies, high schools, and colleges: and if the Normal Schools can find nothing else to do, why then, in the opinion of these persons, there is no need of Normal Schools. And to these objectors the old answer,¹ so often given, that high schools are yet so few in number and the work they do so poor, that Normal Schools must for the present be chiefly engaged in academical instruction, is by no means satisfactory. Once that answer may have been conclusive; but now it is not, with a high school on every hill-top, and many of them as richly endowed as the Normal Schools themselves with apparatus, libraries, and skilled teachers.

These men are the most dangerous, though not the most numerous enemies of the Normal Schools; but they are not so much enemies to Normal Schools as enemies to *the* Normal Schools.

✓ Now the Michigan State Normal has been constituted about the same as the other Normal Schools, and has tried to do about the same kind of work. It has been in operation about twenty-five years, and has felt the opposition of both the classes of critics above described. The one has denied her right to exist at all, and the other has denied her right to exist as she is or has been. They have said: Twenty or thirty years ago, when the State was comparatively young and sparsely inhabited, and when good schools were very few, it was well to have one State high school where teachers and others could get a good academical education; but now there are scores ✓ of good high schools, scattered all over the State, well equipped and well manned, and supported by local taxation. The Normal School they have said, must either be closed as a State school, or else confine herself to the legitimate and peculiar function of affording to teachers the *special* preparation they need, and the special preparation it is the function of no other school in the State to give.

Now, although the opposition to this school did not threaten immediate destruction, still it seemed to be growing, and especially among men who are usually considered the warmest friends of education, and whose opinions upon educational matters ought to have most weight. This, and some other considerations, eighteen months ago induced the governing Board of the School, the State Board of Education, to inquire whether considerable changes in the courses of study were not needed in order to re-adjust the school to its changed surroundings. A committee of their own number was accordingly appointed to study the subject. The members of the faculty of the School were asked to give their views in full. All the chief educational men of the State, and many in other parts of the country, were consulted. Quite elaborate discussions were in some cases presented, and the views of many of our best teachers obtained. ✓ These opinions with an unexpected unanimity, pointed in one direction. As a result the committee of the Board reported in favor of a considerable change in the plan of the school with the purpose of making it more distinctively professional in character. The change recommended was adopted, and has been called with rather unnecessary ostentation, a "*New Departure*."

The following paragraphs from the report of this committee are given,

before going more into details, as presenting in general terms a fair idea of the new basis of work.

"The committee recommend, 1st, Enlarging the School of Observation and Practice so as to constitute a graded school representing all the departments of our best schools, including the high school; and that students applying for admission to the Normal School, deficient in academic preparation, be allowed to make such preparation in the School of Observation and Practice. 2nd, This School of Observation and Practice to be under the supervision of the Principal of that School with two skilled assistants, but the teaching to be done by Normal students under the direction and inspection of the respective professors of the Normal School. 3d, To establish in the Normal School proper three courses of study, of one year each—the Common-School Course, the Higher English Course, and the Language Course,—for fitting teachers respectively for the lower and the higher grades of our common and graded schools. 4th, Aside from general reviews in connection with the professional instruction, the Normal School proper is to be confined to professional instruction."

This plan, as will be seen, implied two distinctive changes from the former courses, and from the courses commonly pursued by most of the Normal Schools. The changes are, 1st, a complete separation of the academical from the professional work of the school, the entire relegation of the former to the School of Observation and Practice, and the restriction of the Normal School proper to the work of professional instruction; and, 2nd, the endeavor to do all the work of general instruction by means of the Normal pupil-teachers under the supervision of the regular Normal School-teachers, each supervising the work in his own department.

The Normal-School courses proper need fuller explanation. They are all one-year courses and are *purely professional*:

I. The Common-School course is intended to fit teachers for work in the rural schools and for the lower grades of the graded schools. Before a pupil can enter this course he must have a thorough knowledge of Practical Arithmetic, English Grammar, Local Geography, Orthography, Reading, History of the United States, Elements of Physiology, of Vocal Music, and of Drawing, and Elementary Algebra.

The course of study itself consists of, 1st, a course of daily lectures running through twenty weeks, upon the Elementary Principles of Education and their psychological and physiological basis,—tempered to the capabilities of pupils who are mostly young, and who have only common-school attainments;—2d, a twenty-week course of daily lectures upon School Organization and Government, School Laws, History of Education, and Methods of Reading and Study;—3d, a daily exercise in practice teaching for forty weeks;—4th, a course of twenty weeks in the *special* methods of teaching reading, orthography, English grammar, and composition. This course in special methods, besides affording an opportunity for a rapid review of the studies themselves, is devoted to such work as the discussion and illustration of the sequence of topics, and the best order of presentation, the comparative value of different topics and the special method of presenting them, the methods applicable to different grades of pupils, the educational and the economic value of the particular study,

the elucidation of difficult points, methods of preparing lessons, modes of conducting the recitation, what qualities make up a good text-book, the handling and movements of classes,—referring all points, so far as possible, to underlying educational principles and maxims. These and many other points that easily suggest themselves to all experienced and thoughtful teachers, fill up pretty fully the courses in special methods;—5th, a similar course of fifteen weeks in Arithmetic and Elementary Algebra;—6th, a similar course of fifteen weeks in Local Geography and United States History;—7th, a similar course of twenty weeks in vocal music and drawing,—a little more than the *pro rata* time being given to these studies, both to aid the more general introduction of these branches into the public school, and on account of a common deficiency of preparation;—8th, a course of fifteen weeks in objective teaching,—botany, zoölogy, and elementary physics, being the topics;—9th, a course of five weeks in human physiology and hygiene, in which, besides methods of teaching, attention is given to modes of lighting, heating, and ventilating school-rooms, proper posture of pupils, length of work hours for pupils of different ages, physical exercises, care of the eyes, and other important matters of school hygiene.

This course—the Common-School Course—altogether, provides, upon the average, about four and one half exercises per day for the school year of forty weeks. It is not, and is not intended to be, so heavy as to prevent pupils from engaging in some general reading and other voluntary literary work. An able pupil may indeed carry the work of this course and still have time to make up in the School of Observation and Practice some deficiencies in his academical preparation.

✓ On the completion of this course the pupil is licensed to teach in the lower grades of the public graded schools, and in the rural ungraded schools of the State for the period of three years. On certain conditions this license may then be renewed for another equal period.

II. The Higher English Course requires for admission, in addition to the demands for the Common-School Course, a good knowledge of the following branches of study:—A course equal to that of our best High Schools is understood;—Higher Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Book-keeping, English Composition, Rhetoric, English Literature, General History, Mental Science, Botany, Zoölogy, Physical Geography, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Civil Government, Geology, Astronomy.

Equivalents for any of these branches, or of those required for admission to the Course of Languages will be accepted, at the discretion of the Faculty, and students will be required to pursue those studies only in the Advanced Professional Courses for which preparation was required for admission.

The course itself is made up as follows:—1st, a course of daily lectures for forty weeks upon the Science of Education,—a fuller discussion of principles than in the preceding course;—2d, twenty weeks upon the history of education, school laws, school organization, and school government;—3d, a daily exercise for forty weeks in practice-teaching under supervision;—the pupils in this course do the work of teaching the English studies of the higher classes in the School of Observation and

Practice;—4th, a course of thirty weeks in the special methods of teaching such elementary branches as reading, penmanship, arithmetic, spelling, geography, vocal music, and drawing, similar to the corresponding course described above for the Common-School pupils;—5th, a like course of fifteen weeks in grammar, composition, rhetoric, and kindred branches;—6th, a course of fifteen weeks devoted to a like end for some of the more advanced mathematical studies;—7th, a similar course of twenty-five weeks devoted to the natural and the physical sciences, and a course in school hygiene like the one before described.

This course also furnishes upon an average about four and a half daily exercises, and upon its completion the pupil is given an unlimited license to teach the English branches in any of the public schools of the State.

III. The last of these professional courses is designated the Language Course, and like the others it is one year in extent. It is designed to fit those who complete it for any place in the public schools of the State. The minimum conditions of admission are the same in English branches as for the Higher English Course, and, in addition, about as much Latin and Greek as is required for admission to college. An equal amount of French and German will be accepted as an equivalent for Latin and Greek.

The studies of this course are about the same as the Higher English Course, except that one exercise per day for thirty weeks is given to Latin and Greek, or to French and German, or to any two of these languages, in place of a corresponding amount in the higher English studies. In all cases, however, the pupil must attend to the professional work in the primary branches.

An additional elective course has recently been provided for persons who have had considerable experience in teaching in the higher grades of our public schools, and who desire to increase their preparation for teaching special branches. These may select and pursue, subject to the approval of the Faculty, any six studies in the Professional Courses.

Applicants for admission to these elective courses will be examined only in the Primary-School studies and in those branches which they intend to pursue. Satisfactory evidence of having taught successfully the Primary-School studies will be accepted in place of examination.

Such, briefly and imperfectly described, are the professional courses of study of the Michigan State Normal School; and such, in still more general terms, is the new plan of work upon which the school entered at the beginning of the last academical year. As has been stated, the distinctive features by which it is marked are a complete separation of the academical from the professional work, and the relegation of the former to the School of Observation and Practice; while the Normal School proper is confined to professional instruction. The academical instruction is all done by pupil-teachers under supervision, and is done solely for the sake of practice teaching; although many take incidental advantage of these classes to make, or to complete, their preparation for the Normal Courses.

Now before deciding to enter upon this plan two obstacles to success clearly presented themselves,—or rather two unsettled questions of para-

mount importance which nothing but experience can ever answer. The first is:—Do teachers, or those intending to become teachers, sufficiently recognize their need of special, technical training in preparation for their work, to spend their time and their money in attendance at a school where this is the sole or the chief kind of instruction offered? The second question is:—Can pupil-teaching be made so good that the pupils taught shall suffer no harm, or so that pupils can be found to fill the classes?

The first of these obstacles seemed the greater one;—the first of these unsettled questions seemed the more difficult to answer. As long as many teachers hold that accurate general scholarship, zeal for the work, and tact to control, are the only qualifications the teacher needs, it is not surprising if those young people who propose to become teachers shall often be found entertaining the same opinion. But it was thought that sentiment upon this point is at least slowly changing for the better, and that educators and educated people are becoming more and more apostles and missionaries of the faith, that as a man must have special training before he can be trusted to shoe a horse or to tune a piano, so he needs special training, certainly as much, who undertakes the task of leading and instructing children and youth; and it was further believed that if Normal Schools would both preach and practice this faith,—the only faith, indeed, that gives them the right to exist, the people would all the sooner arrive at correct convictions.

The experience of the Michigan State Normal School during the past year does not throw any certain light upon this question. The pupils of that school usually come to believe, after a time at least, that there is a science and an art of education, and that one to become a good teacher must make these the objects of special study; but whether they are first attracted to the school by its professional or its academical instruction is not in many cases certain. Probably they come with only the indefinite purpose of making themselves in some way better teachers. The past year's trial has been too brief for definite conclusions; furthermore, although the changes in the course of study were industriously advertised, there was not time enough before the opening of the year for the people to become generally informed. A very few pupils who were in school the year before and who knew the change was going to take place, have not returned, and their absence is said by rumor to be on account of the change, but no one knows of a certainty. It is possible that some who were attending the school for its academical instruction have been lost.

The attendance during the past year has been in the professional courses, 104, of whom 84 were graduated; and in the School of Observation and Practice, 439. Many of the latter, though, were carrying some professional studies.

This summary shows a slight decrease of attendance as compared with the preceding year; but the diminution can, in part at least, be traced to other causes. It can only be known after a longer experience whether the time has fully come when teachers are convinced of their need of special training. It may, however, be said that the experience of the school in question, during the past year, is, in this direction, not without promise.

The pure, professional courses very generally approved themselves to the students pursuing them. They became convinced that there were enough matters of special importance to them as teachers to fill up a year pretty full of earnest labor.

One matter that is working against the school is the fact that there is not now in the State any adequate system of examination and supervision outside of the larger towns. The standard of qualification for teachers, especially in the country, is very low. If competent examiners were in the habit of requiring for a license some special knowledge of the art and the science of teaching, in addition to good character and scholarship, the success of the present plan of instruction in the Normal School would be assured beyond a doubt.

In regard to the other obstacle to the new plan,—the question of pupil-teaching,—it is believed the experience of the school during the past year, and indeed during many previous years, justifies the belief that *it may be made a success.*

For many years, indeed from the organization of the school, there has been a training or practice-school department covering the usual primary and intermediate grades. The classes in this department have nearly always been taught by pupil-teachers; and this work has often been done in the past by these inexperienced teachers without adequate supervision and assistance from the regular teachers of the school, who were occupied all the time in giving academical instruction to their own advanced classes. The pupil-teaching has consequently, in the past years, been often very poorly done; and yet there has never been any lack of pupils to fill up these classes in the school of practice. People in the city withheld or withdrew their children from the free public schools, and sent them into the classes of the pupil-teachers where tuition fees were charged. With the improvement that now comes from a more constant and a more systematic supervision there is no reasonable doubt these lower classes will continue full.

In regard to the practicability of extending this work of pupil-teaching to the higher grades, to all the grades, indeed, of a high school, there is naturally more doubt. Many think this cannot be done; possibly it cannot be. Those people who believe in precedent more than in progress, those who think what has never been done never can and never ought to be done, those who have great talent for sitting still and croaking at those who disturb the quiet by moving about,—and there are a few such in Michigan,—loudly pronounced the experiment a failure before it began; these noisily-expressed predictions of disaster added needless impediments to the trial. Classes in the higher branches, they said, ought never and would never submit to being taught by mere practice-teachers. And yet the Normal School had for years at each graduation day been sending out a large number of young men and women who never had had any experience in any but primary instruction, as licensed to enter the public schools and teach Geometry and Chemistry and Latin and German and other advanced studies. It naturally occurred to some that if these persons, two months after graduation, without experience and without the aid and advice and supervision of a skilled teacher, and often without the

necessary books and apparatus, were still competent to teach these branches, they might possibly two months *before* graduation be able to teach them reasonably well, with the help and counsel and constant oversight of experienced instructors, and in a school well equipped with all material aids. Moreover it would seem that what the school certified her pupils as able to do she ought to know they are able to do, and that by the certain knowledge of actual trial. In the Normal School, pupil-teachers cannot make mistakes either in matter or manner without speedy detection and correction; in their own actual schools, after graduation, and when alone, they may continue to blunder for years. Furthermore there was no very obvious justice in allowing young and inexperienced teachers to practice upon *little* children more than upon *larger* ones. If it was good in one case, it might be good in the other; if bad in one case, it would be bad in both.

For several years, previous to the last, tentative experiments had been made in the school, more and more each year, in the matter of practice-teaching in the higher branches. Pupils have often been put in charge of classes for a single day, or for a week, or for a term, and their work in all its bearings carefully scrutinized. These experiments were nearly always reasonably successful; and this gave hope that this work might with profit be greatly enlarged.

And now during the past year a very large part of the academical instruction in *all* grades has been given by pupil-teachers, and for the most part with a success hardly anticipated. *With proper supervision this work can be made a success, and in every sense profitable.*

There is no difference of opinion as to the value of properly-directed practice-teaching to the practice-teacher himself,—this is one of his best means of preparation; the only question is:—can it also be made profitable to the pupil taught? Those discussing this question pretty generally agree that if the instruction given by the pupil-teacher can by careful supervision be made as good as the average instruction in the public school of corresponding grades, it may be safely and freely employed for all classes in Normal Schools as a means of training teachers for their work.

In the Normal School of Michigan during the past year a great many classes have been thus taught in German and French, in the various branches of mathematics up to and including trigonometry, in Latin and in Greek, in Botany, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Physiology, and in nearly all cases the instruction has been very good, the order in classes without fault and the interest and progress of the pupils excellent. So far ✓ as the writer knows not a single case of insubordination occurred, and the instances of discontent or of disaffection were not more frequent or more serious than occur yearly toward regular teachers. Better instruction is indeed seldom witnessed than was given during the past year by some of the pupil-teachers in German, French, Geometry, Algebra, Chemistry, Physics, and Physiology. These branches are especially mentioned because of the writer's accidental opportunity of observing them; and the opinion is confidently expressed that there are very few high schools in the State where the work was as well done. At any rate it is entirely safe to say that if the pupils taught in this way had been left to their own local

high schools, very many of them would not have been so well instructed. There was this advantage in the case, it is true, that nearly all who were in the professional courses and who consequently constituted the teaching corps, had taught before, many of them in the lower grades of the School of Observation and Practice, and many in the public schools; but this advantage will doubtless continue, for the greater part of those who resort to the Normal School have previously had some experience as teachers. On the contrary a disadvantage, of no small extent, arose from the plan being a new one, and from its being impossible to devise a system of assignment of the work that would fit in all respects unforeseen conditions. A second though temporary disadvantage came from the fact that, as many of the pupils of the school had made considerable advancement in the old mixed courses before the adoption of the new plan, it was necessary to conform somewhat to their circumstances. This difficulty, however, will disappear as the school is gradually adjusted to the new scheme.

Some things, of course, have been learned from the year's experiences. These things will be presented from the writer's personal stand-point, although in most of them he believes his co-laborers of the schools will generally agree with him:

First, Pupil-teaching is worth less to the pupil-teacher as well as to the pupil taught, unless very carefully and very constantly supervised by skilful teachers. With that supervision it is of immense value to the practice-teacher, and not unprofitable to the pupils taught.

Second, This supervision must be so close that the supervising teacher shall be half the time, or at least, one-third, except possibly in the lower grades, present during the work of teaching. Generally he cannot supervise properly more than three classes at once.

Third, The pupil-teachers, except for marked inefficiency, should have charge of their classes for at least a term of *ten* weeks; more frequent changes are harmful to both teachers and pupils.

Fourth, A careful and wise discrimination must be made in assigning the work to the pupil-teachers,—a discrimination that shall consider their fitness and their aptitude for the different grades and studies.

Fifth, The plan must provide a means by which the supervising teachers can meet their pupil-teachers at regular and frequent intervals for counsel and for marking out and giving directions for their work.

Sixth, The pupil-teachers must be made to feel that the classes are their own, and that they are to be held to a close accountability for the order in recitations and for the progress made; while, at the same time, the classes must know that they are to be held to an implicit loyalty to their immediate teachers.

Seventh, The right of appeal from the decision of a pupil-teacher in matters of examination or discipline, etc., must not be denied the pupil; and yet the supervising teacher must in this particular exercise the utmost care and discretion.

These conditions complied with, the writer believes that practice-teaching in all grades and in all studies may be very safely and very generally used by the Normal Schools as one of the most profitable means of giving to their pupils practical training for their future work;—a training that

theoretical teaching can in no manner reach, and a training of indisputable necessity. The young teacher must get this first practice either unaided and alone in his own school, or else—far better—under the eye and with the aid of one who can show him the dangers that impend before he meets them, the errors that are near him before he commits them.

The writer cannot perhaps so well present his views of what pupil-teaching can and should be made as by giving a little more detailed description of work that has been actually done. This he will undertake, though at the risk of being tedious.

Chemistry, in the courses of the School of Observation and Practice of the Michigan Normal School, is in the twelfth or highest grade; the pupils pursuing it are from sixteen to twenty-five years of age, and the time devoted to the study is thirty weeks. The instruction, so far as possible, is made objective and experimental.

This work during the last year for a class of forty pupils was done by pupil-teaching. This expression, however, does not mean simply sending some young and inexperienced people to practice and to blunder; but it means something quite different and certainly very much more laborious for the supervising teachers. The pupil-teachers had studied chemistry, of course, before,—some in previous classes in the Normal School, some in the State Agricultural College and some in the public high schools. They were not, as under the circumstances they could not be, selected because of any particular fondness or aptitude for the study; and some were compelled to teach in this class those who were their own classmates in other branches.

These pupil-teachers were met once a week, or oftener if needful, by the teacher in charge, and the work for the week examined and assigned; cloudy points were cleared up; the best order and the best manner of presenting the topics discussed; the parts that were to be emphasized pointed out; the extent of the daily lessons was determined, and cautions pointing towards any pertinent though outlying questions which inquisitive members of the class might ask, and for which the pupil-teacher should be ready, were given; the apparatus was prepared, and all experiments which were to be made were gone over and repeated by the pupil-teachers until every one felt sure of his hand. Then one of the number was assigned to the work of teaching the class for a week, one was appointed to assist at the experiments and the rest to act as observers and critics. Then the class came in and the pupil-teacher took up his work. At the next meeting another portion of the work was looked over in the same way, new assignments were made and a critical, though good-natured, review of the past week was given, and suggestions and criticisms heard from the observers. This constituted the *professional* work in chemistry for this class of pupil-teachers.

In this particular case as the trial was a new one, the teacher in charge was present at nearly every recitation, ready to assist, as might seem necessary, in case any unexpected points were raised for which the pupil-teacher might not be instantly prepared. Under the light of this experience the writer believes that two classes, instead of one, could have been

simultaneously supervised with entire success, and thus twice as much opportunity given for practice-teaching.

The result was: The work was well done, few of the writer's own classes having ever shown better interest or made more satisfactory acquisitions. To the pupil-teachers themselves the work was unquestionably of very great value. Some of them are already engaged to teach next year in the public high schools of the State; and if there are any branches which they can teach well, it will certainly be those they have taught in this way in the Normal School.

Of course in a large school with such a complex organization, it is difficult to arrange programmes of daily work so as to fit and entirely accommodate all pupils and all departments; but bearing in mind that the scheme does not recognize the need of every pupil-teacher having practice in every branch, or indeed, in every department, it is believed that experience and study can speedily remove or greatly reduce this difficulty.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, the writer fears this account of what the Normal School of Michigan is endeavoring to do is very unsatisfactory and incomplete; and the considerations he has presented, in the hurry of a too-rapid preparation, are not so clearly expressed as they ought to be, not so clearly even as they lie in his own mind;—but he dare not risk further intrusion upon your time by any additional attempts at elucidation.

Allow him, though, in conclusion, to express the very confident conviction, with which, too, he hopes and believes that many of you are in harmony, that if the Normal Schools of the country ever reach, as he believes they will, a surer and an unquestioned footing in the public-school systems, it must be by their taking up the exclusive work of affording that special and peculiar preparation the teacher needs, and which it is the province of no other school to give. In the present civilized economy there is, year by year, a closer and more sharply-defined division of labor, and it is by means of this division of labor that civilization advances. The farmer no longer makes his own tools, grinds his own corn or shoes his own horses; the housewife no longer spins and weaves and cuts and sews the clothing for her household. The different kinds of labor are relegated to the special trades. The same thing must become true of the different schools that constitute a harmonious system of education. There must be between them no interference, nor crossings of jurisdiction. Medical schools and law schools and theological schools and the schools of the mechanical arts must do a *special* and not a *general* work,—must have their well-defined orbits; and if the Normal Schools have no such special work to do, or if they neglect to do it,—if they have not their distinctive orbits, or if they wander from them,—then in some convulsion, at no distant day, they will perish as unnecessary or as disturbing members of the public educational system.

DISCUSSION OF PROF. McLOUTH'S PAPER.

This paper was discussed by E. C. HEWETT, of Illinois; J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa; EDWARD BROOKS, of Pennsylvania; GRACE C. BIBB, of Missouri;

✓ W: F. PHELPS, of Minnesota; T. M. MARSHALL, of West Virginia, and others. The discussion showed a divided sentiment as to excluding academic instruction from Normal Schools. The only remarks furnished were those of Mr. MARSHALL.

REMARKS OF MR. MARSHALL.

Two gentlemen have just said that nine-tenths of the Normal Schools do redundant work, by reteaching what has already been taught in the High School. They are evidently mistaken. Men are too likely to view things from a narrow stand-point. I have heard these local views expressed to a greater or less extent here every year since I became a member. But I am heartily glad that the discussions in this Department this year have been more truly practical than any I have heretofore heard.

It has been acknowledged on all hands that some literary work,—more or less according to situation or circumstances,—must be done by Normal Schools in order that their pupils shall know the subject-matter to be taught as it must be known by the good teacher. This is wiser than what I have often heard here formerly.

I also beg leave to call the attention of gentlemen to the fact that this is a large country, very diverse in population and feature, and yet more diverse in school matters than in other things.

Those Normal Schools which admit only the best graduates of High Schools, have, of course, little or no literary work that they need to do; and yet, even they may find that a thorough *review* of the branches which are taught in primary and grammar schools, and which their students have not given attention to for some years, is highly beneficial. One can not know a thing too well, especially when he is to teach it.

However, we will admit that under such circumstances, nothing but professional studies need be pursued, and nothing but professional work done, still the assertions of the gentlemen are, in my opinion, entirely too far reaching.

There are many places where there are so few High Schools or where their average work is of such a quality that a high standard of admission to Normal Schools cannot be maintained. The Normal Pupils could not be found, and the school would die.

✓ A prominent element in success is adaptability. Then allow the Normal Schools to adapt themselves, as Prof. McLouth has done, and as others do and have done, to their surrounding, merely requiring of them thorough work in their graduates in *both* the academic and the Normal curricula.

The following persons were elected officers for next year, in accordance with the recommendation of the nominating committee:—

President—J. C. GILCHRIST, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Vice-President—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Normal, Ill.

Secretary—G. W. FETTER, Philadelphia, Pa.

Adjourned.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department met in the Assembly Room of the Girls' Normal-School Building, at 3 P. M. The Secretary being absent W. A. BELL of Indiana, was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The President, GEO. P. BROWN then delivered the following address on

CULTURE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

I cannot better express to the ladies and gentlemen of this Association my appreciation of the honor conferred upon me, in electing me to preside over your deliberations, than to assure you that I have compressed what I have to say into very narrow limits. In this opening address I shall attempt to answer briefly the question: What can the elementary schools do more than they are now doing to promote culture among the people?

Culture is a word much used. It has a variety of meanings, if we may judge from the great variety of things that it is used to name. Yet most agree that the thing it names to each one using the word, it is desirable to obtain and the schools should encourage. An accepted authority in defining culture makes it a synonym for civilization. That is not the meaning given to the word in this paper.

Culture deals with the spiritual growth and development of the individual. Civilization addresses itself to social needs and conveniences.

Culture is concerned with the real inner life of the man. Civilization is the machinery of life expressed in their inventions and organizations that promote social happiness and physical comfort.

Culture creates the idea; civilization furnishes the instruments for the realization of an idea.

Culture produced a SHAKESPEARE, a MILTON, a GOETHE, an EMERSON; civilization produced a FULTON, a MORSE, and an EDISON.

Culture makes souls; civilization makes railroads—good things, it is true, but not so good as souls.

Ours is pre-eminently an age of civilization rather than of culture.

It is an age of concentration rather than of expansion. Culture precedes and produces civilization. An age of expansion has ever been followed by an age of concentration; of the practical application of ideas to organizations and institutions. In the fulness of time this in turn gives place to an age of expansion, for, as MATTHEW ARNOLD says: "Man, after he has made himself comfortable and has to determine what to do with himself

next, will begin to remember that he has a mind, and that the mind may be made the source of great pleasure."

Nor is our definition of culture that of the English statesman who called it "a smattering of the two dead languages of Greek and Latin."

Nor is it that which is implied in the following words of another Englishman:—"The silliest cant of the day is the cant about culture. Culture is a desirable quality in a critic of new books, and sits well on a possessor of belles-lettres. The man of culture is in politics one of the poorest mortals alive. For simple pedantry and want of good sense, no man is his equal. Perhaps men of culture are the only class of responsible beings who cannot, with safety, be entrusted with power."

If culture were merely a smattering of the two dead languages of Greek and Latin, this would probably be a fair estimate of its value.

But our definition suggests no necessary relation to a knowledge of the dead languages. The essentials of that culture which the elementary schools should strive to promote are three. In this discussion I have borrowed a few phrases from the writings of MATTHEW ARNOLD, which more happily express my thought than would any words of my own.

Culture is, first, "a knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world." It is a knowledge of the history of the humane spirit.

Culture is, in the second place, "that tact and delicacy of judgment" by which one is able to estimate properly the relations in what he reads, and of what he reads to his own environment. Culture is more than these, it is that spirit and desire which prompts him who has the knowledge and judgment to discern the right, to labor to make the right prevail.

Some one has said that the object of culture is to make an "intelligent being more intelligent." But true culture is more than this. It is not only the knowledge and tact to discover what "reason and the will of God are," but it is an active, earnest desire to make "reason and the will of God prevail."

Whether or not this definition shall pass with you as *the* definition of culture, all must admit that it is *a* definition of culture and that it describes a quality of great value. More than this, we must admit that it is the one thing needful, compared with which all other acquisitions are small and unworthy. To promote this culture should be the end and purpose of instruction in every grade of school. It should be the end and purpose of instruction everywhere.

It is eminently fitting that the teacher give special heed to this matter at this time for the following reasons:

The time is not distant when the question of the continued existence of a Government "of the people, for the people, and by the people," will have to be answered. How it shall be answered will depend upon the extent to which culture prevails. Even now religious beliefs are rapidly changing. Statements of doctrine that lately were accepted without question are now rejected by many and apologized for by more. The Bible, that in our childhood was generally and reverently thought to be the language of the Creator addressed to his creatures, has come to be to many but the mythology of a peculiar people. To others it is a poem, written in the language of literature, and not in the language of science. To a large

majority it has ceased to have that sacredness and infallibility which they formerly attached to it.

God, who but yesterday was a being who thinks, loves, and wills, the personal and self-conscious ruler of the universe, has come to be to many but the law of molecular activity, and to many others little more than the aggregation in thought of abstract attributes and principles by which to test our conduct.

It is a time of revolution in religious opinions and beliefs, and it needs no prophetic vision to see that the time for a revolution in the State is at hand. Like all revolutions it will be attended by great destruction. Destruction of much that is outgrown and a barrier to progress, we must admit this we can afford to lose; but destruction as well of much that, if preserved, would be helpful. In the progress of this iconoclastic movement many will experience shipwreck of their faith in religion and God. To discard the form will be to them to discard the substance. When they find in the Bible statements which they have come to believe do not fit the truth as since revealed, all reverence for its teaching ceases. When they are forced to the conclusion that a mistake has been made in thinking of God as having the form and other attributes of man, a personal self-conscious ruler of the universe, they are ready to exclaim there is no God! When Heaven ceases to be with them a city with golden streets and jasper walls, it ceases to be, and immortality becomes a delusion. In passing from one mount of vision to another we must ever pass through the Slough of Despond. Is it too much to say that whether he shall attain the second mount after having been driven from the first or will be stifled in the slough, will depend upon his culture. Will not a "knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world," a knowledge of the history of the humane spirit and "that tact and delicacy of judgment" that the acquiring of this knowledge can be made to give, whereby one may determine more clearly what reason and the will of God are, and add to this the earnest, active desire to make reason and the will of God prevail — will not these, I say, help him to pass the slough, to go safely by the lions, to escape from the castle of doubt, and to climb the highest mount from which a wider and clearer view of his relations to man and to God shall bring a more rational and enduring peace to his troubled soul?

We may lament that men should ever leave the mount of vision on which they were born and seek for any other view than is there presented. But the fact remains that they are doing this, and will ever do it, so long as knowledge increases and an honest effort is made to know the truth. Change prevails everywhere and in all things. Whether in the world of spirit that change shall be progress will depend in no small degree upon the teacher's successful effort to make intelligent beings more intelligent, and inspire them with the desire to labor to make the truth prevail.

In an age when thought was stagnant, culture could with comparative safety be limited to the controlling few; but in an age when thought is everywhere active and aggressive, the culture of all is the only safeguard against anarchy in thought or in conduct.

Leaving this broader view of the relation of culture to civilization and religion, let us consider what relation it sustain to the system of education with which we are especially concerned.

I have called this an age of civilization. It were better to call it an age of machinery. Men are engaged in the study and use of machinery on the farm, in the house, in the manufactory, in our means of transportation, and in our means of communicating intelligence. But machinery is not limited to the world of matter. It has invaded the world of spirit. The people are absorbed in the study of the machinery of politics, of the Church, and of social life. Every one is trying to invent or is learning to use some machine.

From this absorbing interest in machinery two things result which concern the school. One is that the people are demanding what they call a practical education for their children. The value of each subject taught in the schools is estimated by the immediate relation it bears to the machinery of life. Arithmetic must be taught because it is of use in keeping accounts. Penmanship is valuable for the same reason. One must learn how to read, not for the culture derived therefrom, but because through the machinery of the press knowledge of all other machinery is disseminated. Drawing is taught not for its æsthetic culture. Few have the hardihood to advocate it on that ground. The potent arguments are those which emphasize its commercial value in designing patterns for wall paper or calico.

An education, to be practical, must, according to this view, have immediate and direct reference to the machinery of life.

The second result that concerns the school is that the teacher has become a more devout worshipper of machinery than the patron; not the machinery of life but the machinery of the school. It is the *how* more than the *what* for which he feels professional concern. So strong is the pupil's belief in the importance of machinery that he considers a breach of order a greater school sin than a breach of good faith. Go into our best schools, so called. In most of them loyalty to truth is less regarded than loyalty to order and routine. When this is not so it is because the teacher has the strength and courage to resist the prevailing tendency.

Then there is the machinery of the stated examination and of estimating the pupil's standing by his per cents. The average teacher in our elementary schools, I will go further and say that all these teachers, with few exceptions, and all the pupils, with fewer exceptions, are much more concerned that the school shall be able to answer the particular questions that may be asked upon examination day, than that they shall have a clear and comprehensive knowledge of the subject taught. The teacher is not censurable to any great degree for all this. He is but following the directions of his superiors. The superintendent, who has worked long enough with his eyes open to discover the truth of what I have said, thinks he is not to blame. His excuse is that it is the fashion to estimate the standing of a school in this way, and that a show of good order and good per cents is what pleases the public. I know of schools in one of the larger cities where the pupils receive 110 per cent in scholarship. Cities having the poorest schools, make, as a rule, a showing of the highest per cents on examination.

I think that the Superintendent is to blame. It is he that made the standard, and it is he that should change it. He is employed, because of

his professional skill, to determine what is best for the school, not what will please the public. He is there as an expert to direct public opinion, not to be controlled by it. When he shall determine that culture rather than machinery shall determine the excellence of the school, the public will not be slow to adopt that standard. I do not undervalue good order and examination tests. Every good school is orderly and able to bear these tests. But a school may be all this and yet be a poor school. That which is best or worst in a school cannot be discovered by arithmetical computation. It is neither the earthquake nor the storm, but the still small voice.

Now the relation that this machinery bears to the integrity and perpetuity of the public-school system it is important to consider. The unfavorable criticism of which we have heard so much during the past few years, is a reason for the teacher's giving heed to the matter. Objections come, sometimes in one form, sometimes in another, but they all indicate dissatisfaction with the results obtained. They are telling us that these results are not commensurate with the time and money spent obtaining them.

If I were talking to an audience of teachers west of the Alleghany Mountains, I should say that there is much ground for this complaint. This same public that took the Superintendent at his word, and pronounce that a good school which can obtain good per cents, are beginning to question the value of these products. They have not yet begun to inquire whether they are measuring the school by the right standard, and whether, possibly, the Superintendent may not be wrong in parading his order and his per cents. They suppose the schools to be good schools. But they say they are not worth what they cost; and, immediately, they begin to inquire how this expense can be made less.

Naturally the High School is first attacked. The people are dissatisfied with these results, for the reason that the teacher is so much absorbed in the machinery of the school that he neglects to give the pupil any sufficient preparation for the machinery of life. But this is not the bottom reason. Without detracting from the average American's loyalty to machinery, it can be said that there is in his mind a thought, of which he is half conscious, that power is of more importance than the machine; that a practical education after all means the possession of those elements of power that may be applied everywhere. If the public were to formulate their objections to the High School, they would be expressed somewhat as follows:

The pupil of average ability who graduates from our High School cannot read. Put him to the test, you will find that he cannot read intelligently any of our English classics. He has formed no taste for reading good books. He has made no start in acquiring a knowledge of the best that has been thought or said in the world. His knowledge of literature, as tested by the stated examination, is limited to a brief biography of a few authors and one or more brief selections from their writings. He will repeat some author's comparison of POPE and DRYDEN or of GOETHE and BYRON, without having ever read ten lines from either. He is thus encouraged to think that he knows something of literature,

but there is little that interests him in such knowledge, and nothing that will urge him on to further research and a more extended reading. The following examination test was thought worthy of a place in the Educational exhibit made at the Centennial, and will therefore be considered a fair illustration of this statement :

The question asked was:—"Who were ARISTOTLE, CICERO, and QUINTILIAN? Give an account of their systems, and point out their defects when submitted to modern criticism?" The answer was as follows:

"ARISTOTLE, a Greek rhetorician, is called the founder of criticism and of grammar, but his works are rather outlines than perfect models." Then follows an apology for ARISTOTLE, and the damage done to his reputation is repaired by reminding us of the backward state of science at that time. For CICERO, there is only censure for having "made rhetoric to consist of invention, and not in conviction;" and QUINTILIAN receives quite as little approval. His definition of Rhetoric is pronounced too general, since it comprises the following conditions:—"To think correctly which belongs to logic, to construct well which belongs to grammar; and to reason well which belongs to the science of reasoning!" There was great unanimity of opinion among all the members of the class, and great uniformity of language.

Now this high-sounding criticism was made by girls, who in all probability, had never read a page of the writings of either of these authors. No inducement remains to read them, for has it not been decided in advance that they are blind guides? It is easy for us to agree with the learned President of the French Educational Commission, that "it is better to be forever ignorant of QUINTILIAN, ARISTOTLE, and the rest than to know them after this fashion."

But the graduate from our High School not only cannot read, and has no foundation laid for acquiring a knowledge of the best things that have been thought and said in the world; he cannot *write*. Test him and it will be found that he has practically no power of independent thought or expression. There is no method in the little thinking that he does, and he has no power of discrimination or generalization. His power of criticism has never been exercised, unless we call the caricature just quoted criticism.

He has no proper development of his own powers and no mastery of himself by which he can lay hold of the knowledge he has acquired and put it to practical use.

In short, no foundation has been laid for the development of that tact and delicacy of judgment which is one of the elements of culture and which is so essential to good citizenship and rational conduct.

I might continue to point out other deficiencies of our High-School graduate, but will complete this unpleasant summary of short-comings by the general statement, that he knows nothing thoroughly. He has a smattering of many things, but nothing whole.

I believe that more power is required of the kind necessary to culture by the thorough and complete mastery of a single subject, so that the student shall feel at home in it than by spending his time in receiving introductions to twenty. Unless I have failed to express the thought

that has been in my mind from the beginning, it has been already suggested that to promote culture among the people the elementary schools and the High Schools also must teach reading and writing better than they are now taught. Civilization has changed from the primitive, plodding, patriarchal life of fifty years ago to the busy, bustling world of to-day.

The distinction of city and country no longer exists. The railroad, the telegraph, and the daily papers have made these one, and that one is the city.

The circle of the sciences has been enlarged, and the applications of these sciences to practical life have been multiplied. Philological researches have awakened new interest in the study of language. New inventions have created new vocations for which a special education is required. All this has tended to distract the attention of people and of teachers from the pre-eminent importance of a thorough teaching of the three R's. Hardly has the pupil developed age and strength sufficient to make the study of these subjects profitable as a means of culture, ere they are dropped from the course, and he is set to learning the elementary definitions of some other study, which in turn gives place to something else ere it is fairly begun.

The *elementary schools* afford too little instruction in reading and writing. Not too little time, perhaps, but too little thought and study are given to these subjects. I was in a "good school" recently. The machinery was working perfectly. Per cents in order and examination were undoubtedly high. A class was reading the "Old Oaken Bucket." The lesson was completed in good order. Pronunciation, enunciation, position, modulation, quality of tone, all near the standard. After the exercise was finished, the teacher, with a gratified look, requested me to ask the class some questions. I asked first how many buckets were in the well. The reply came quickly from several that there were *three*—"the old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket, and the moss-covered bucket." I then called their attention to the couplet—

"And soon, with the emblem of truth overflowing,
And dripping with coolness, it rose from the well,"

and inquired what was the emblem of truth here spoken of. After some hesitation one of the bolder pupils said she thought it was an *eagle*.

Now is it too much to say that this teacher gave heed to the anise and cummin and neglected the weightier matters?

Composition, other than the formal construction of sentences that express no thought, is neglected in every grade of school. The way is here open to start the pupil in the work of analysis, comparison, discrimination, and criticism, that shall in time develop into "tact and delicacy of judgment" which belong to culture.

And, finally, I believe it is through the study of reading and of composition in every grade of the school, that study which shall have for its object the gaining of knowledge of the "best that has been thought and said in the world," and the formation of that tact and delicacy of judgment which a careful comparison of these thoughts in conversation and written composition shall develop, and the discovery of those relations in the thought of

all time that tend to steady and strengthen our faith in the final working of all things for good—it is in and through all this, I say, that will grow that third element of culture which is the crowning excellence of every man or woman who possesses it; the active, earnest desire to make reason and the will of God prevail,

In the discussion Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, said that he feared that too much is expected of the boys and girls. The subject of literature is a broad one, and many questions may be asked that those mature in life and well read in books cannot answer. Persons frequently go before a class and ask certain questions, and because they are not answered correctly draw the conclusion that the class knows nothing. They seem to forget that what is unknown is always greater than what is known by any one of ordinary culture in this line. Machinery in school is too much derided: proper machinery properly used is an element of great strength in education. We should criticize discriminatingly the faults of our public schools.

A. L. WADE, of Morgantown, West Virginia, was pleased with the spirit of the address: its principal fault was its tendency to fault-finding.

Mr. BROWN said that no one should excel him in his loyalty to the public schools, and insisted that nothing was to be gained by covering up their defects.

Miss LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Philadelphia, insisted that Mr. BROWN's illustrations were fair, and claimed that many things are very poorly taught in the public schools.

W. T. HARRIS, LL. D., Superintendent of Public Instruction at Saint Louis, Mo., delivered an address on

THE RELATIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE SCHOOL.

What are the claims of the Kindergarten as a department of Public-School Education?

This question involves a consideration of many subordinate questions relative to the province of the school in the education of human life as a whole—for it is clear life itself as a whole is a system of education; for man is a being of constant development, and in every epoch of his life an education goes on. There are well-defined epochs of growth or of education—that of infancy in which education is chiefly that of use and wont, the formation of habits as regards the care of the person and the conduct within family life, that of youth wherein the child learns in the school how to handle those instrumentalities which enable him to participate in the intellectual or theoretical acquisitions of the human race, and wherein, at the same time, he learns those habits of industry, regularity, and punctuality, and self-control which enable him to combine with his fellow men in civil society and in the State—then there is that education which follows the period of school education, the education

which one gets by the apprenticeship to a vocation or calling in life. Other spheres of education are the state or body-politic and its relation to the individual wherein the latter acts as citizen making laws through his elected representatives and assisting in their execution, the church wherein he learns to see all things under the form of eternity and derive thence the ultimate standards of his theory and practice in life.

The question of the Kindergarten also involves—besides this one of province, i. e. the question of whether there is a place for it—the consideration of its disciplines or what it accomplishes in the way of giving theoretical insight or of practical will power; these two and the emotional nature of the human being. Exactly what does the Kindergarten attempt to do in these directions? And then, after the what it does is ascertained, arises the question whether it is desirable to attempt such instruction in the school, whether it does not take the place of more desirable training which the school has all along been furnishing—or whether it does not on the other hand, trench on the province of the education within the family, a period of nurture wherein the pupil gets most of his internal or subjective, emotional life developed. If the Kindergarten takes the child too soon from the family and abridges the period of nurture it must perforce injure his character as a whole; for the period of nurture is like the root-life of the plant, essential for the development of the above-ground life of the plant, essential for the public life of the man, the life wherein he combines with his fellow-men.

Then, again, there is involved the question of education for vocation in life, the preparation for the arts and trades that are to follow school life, as the third epoch in life-education. Should the education into the technicalities of vocations be carried down into the school life of the pupil, still more should it be carried down into the earliest period of transition from the nurture period to the school period?

Besides these essential questions there are many others of a subsidiary nature, those relating to expense, to the training of teachers and their supply, to the ability of public-school boards to manage such institutions, to the proper buildings for their use, the proper length of sessions, the degree of strictness of discipline to be preserved, &c., &c. The former essential questions relate to the desirability of Kindergarten-education; the latter relate to the practicability of securing it.

In order to present these issues to you in their most interesting aspects I shall first speak of the merits claimed by its advocates for the Kindergarten, and attempt to set forth some of the results which I have seen accomplished by it.

The most enthusiastic advocates of the Kindergarten offer as grounds for its establishment such claims for its efficiency as might be reasonably claimed for the totality of human education in its fivefold aspect of nurture, school, vocation, state, and church. If what they claim for it were met with as actual results, we certainly should realize the fairest ideals of a perfected type of humanity at once. Such claims, however, can be true only of a life-long education in its fivefold aspect, and not of any possible education which lasts only from one to four years in the life of the individual. Notwithstanding this exaggeration it may prove to be the case

that the Kindergarten is justified in claiming a province heretofore unoccupied by the school or by family nurture and a province which is of the utmost importance to the right development of those phases of life which follow it. It is, indeed, no reproach to the "New Education" (as they call it) to accuse them of exaggeration. The only fault which we may charge them with, is a tendency to exclusiveness—to a tendency to ignore the educational possibilities of the other provinces of human life, and especially those of the school as it has hitherto existed.

To illustrate the breadth of view which the advocates of the Kindergarten entertain in regard to the theory and practical value of the Kindergarten I quote here a statement of its *rationale* furnished me by Miss ELIZABETH PEABODY, justly considered the leading advocate for the new education in this country:

"The *rationale* of FROEBEL's method of education is only to be given by a statement of the eternal laws which organize human nature on the one side and the material universe on the other. Human nature and the material universe are related contrasts which it is the personal life of every human being to *unify*. Material nature is the unconscious manifestation of God, and includes the human body with which men find themselves in relation so vital that he takes part in perfecting it by means of the organs,—and this part of nature is the only part of nature which can be said to be dominated vitally by man, who, in the instance of JESUS CHRIST, so purified it by never violating any law of Human Nature—which (Human Nature) is God's intentional revelation of himself to each—that he seems to have had complete dominion, and could make himself visible or invisible at will—transfiguring his natural body by his spiritual body, as on the Mount of Transfiguration—or consuming it utterly as on the Mount of Ascension. Whether man in this atmosphere will ever do this and thus abolish natural death, or not, there is no doubt there will be infinite approximation to this glorification of humanity in proportion as education does justice to the children, as FROEBEL's education aims to do it, for it is his principle to lead children to educate themselves from the beginning, like MOSES's demon—forbidding the wrong and leaving the self-activity free to goodness and truth—which it is destined to pursue forever and ever."

"His disciples of FROEBEL everywhere see the world in this way. With them the theory of the Kindergarten is a theory of the world of MAN and Nature. FROEBEL himself was as much a religious (or moral) enthusiast as a pedagogical reformer. The moral regeneration of the race is the inspiring ideal which his followers aim to realize.

I do not disparage this lofty ideal—I revere it, as the ideal which every teacher should cherish. No other one is a worthy one for the teacher of youth! But I think that any gifted teacher, in our district schools, our High Schools, or our Colleges, may as reasonably as the teacher of the Kindergarten have this lofty expectation of the moral regeneration of the race to follow from his teachings. If the child is more susceptible at the early age when he enters the Kindergarten, and it is far easier then to mould his personal habits, his physical strength and skill, and his devotion toward his equals and his superiors, yet, on the other hand, the

High-School teacher or the College professor comes into relation with him when he has begun to demand for himself an explanation of the problem of life and it is possible, for the first time, at this age to lead him to INSIGHT—the immediate philosophical view of the universality and necessity of Principles. Insight is the faculty of highest principles and of course more important than all other theoretical disciplines. It is therefore probable that the opportunity of the teacher who instructs pupils at sixteen years and upwards is, on an average, more precious for the welfare of the individual than is the opportunity of the teacher whose pupils are under the age of six. This advantage, however, the teacher of the youngest pupils has, that she may give them an impulse that will cause them to continue their education in after life. The primary school with its four-years' course usually gets five pupils where the grammar school with a course of four years gets only one pupil. The importance of the primary school is seen in the fact that it affects a much larger proportion of the inhabitants of community, while the importance of the high school rests on the fact that its education develops insight and directive power, so that its graduates do most of the thinking and planning for the community.

But there are special disciplines which the child of five years may receive profitably that the youth of sixteen would find unproductive.

There has been for some time a clamor in favor of the introduction of the arts and trades into the common schools. It has been supposed by self-styled "practical" writers on education that the school should fit the youth for the practice of some vocation or calling. They would have the child learn a trade, as well as reading, writing, and arithmetic; and the most zealous of them demand that it shall be a trade and not much else. But the good sense of the educational world as a whole has not been moved to depart from the even tenor of its way by this clamor, and has defended its preference for technical, conventional, and disciplinary training, of a general character, useful for each and every one, no matter what his vocation shall be. Who can tell in the child what special vocation the individual will best follow when he grows up? Besides this the whole time of the child so far as it can be had without overtasking him is needed from the period of six or seven years to sixteen years in order to give him a proper amount of this training in technical, conventional, and disciplinary studies. Moreover, it is said that these several studies are the keys to the worlds of nature and man, and that they transcend in value any special forms of skill such as arts and trades, by as great a degree as the general law surpasses the particular instance. It is claimed that arithmetic, the science of numbers for example, is indispensable in a thousand arts and sciences, while each art has much in it that is special and of limited application in the other arts.

But on the other hand analytical investigation has done much in the way of singling out from the physical movements involved in the trades, those which are common and may be provided for by general disciplines of the body which may be introduced into the school along with the science underlying the art. For example, the theory and practice of drawing furnish a kind of propædæutics to all of the arts and trades and could not fail to make more skilful the workman, whatever his calling.

Drawing then may properly enter the programme of all the schools, having its claim acknowledged to be a general discipline.

But while we may acknowledge the transcendent importance of the regular branches for the period of time claimed by the school at present—namely from the age of six to sixteen—it must be conceded that the age from four years to six years is not mature enough to receive profit from the studies of the school.

The conventional and the disciplinary studies are too much for the powers of the child of four years or five years. But the child of four years or five years is in a period of transition out of the stage of education which we have named “nurture.” He begins to learn of the out-door life, of the occupations and ways of people beyond the family circle, and to long for a further acquaintance with them. He begins to demand society with others of his own age outside his family, and to repeat for himself in miniature the picture of the great world of civil society, mimicking it in his plays and games. Through play the child gains individuality; his internal—“subjective” as it is called—nature becomes active and he learns to know his own tendencies and proclivities. Through caprice and arbitrariness the child learns to have a will of his own, and not to exercise a mere mechanical compliance with the will of his elders.

It is at this period of transition from the life in the family to that of the school, that the kindergarten furnishes what is most desirable, and, in doing so, solves many problems hitherto difficult of solution. The genius of FROEBEL has provided a system of discipline and instruction which is wonderfully adapted to this stage of the child's growth, when he needs the gentleness of nurture and the rational order of the school in due admixture. The “Gifts and Occupations” as he calls them, furnish an initiation into the arts and sciences; and they do this in a manner half playful, half serious. Of the twenty gifts which the system offers, the first six form a group having the one object to familiarize the child with the elementary notions of geometry. He learns the forms of solids: the cube, sphere, and cylinder, and their various surfaces,—also divisions of the cube and combinations of the cube and its divisions in building various objects. He learns counting and measuring by the eye, for the cube and its divisions are made on a scale of an inch and fractions of an inch—and the squares into which the surface of his table is divided are square inches. Counting, adding, subtracting, and dividing the parts of the cube give him the elementary operations of arithmetic so far as small numbers are concerned, and give him a very practical knowledge of them. For he can use his knowledge and he has developed it step by step with his own activity.)

It is always the desideratum in education to secure the maximum of self-activity in the pupil. The kindergarten gifts are the best instrumentalities ever devised for the purpose of educating children through self-activity. Other devices may do this—other devices have done it; but FROEBEL's apparatus is most successful. It is this fact that occasions the exaggerated estimate which his disciples place upon the originality of FROEBEL's methods. Long before his day, it was known and stated as the first principle of pedagogy, that the pupil is educated not by what others

do for him, but by what he is led to do for himself. But FROEBEL's system of gifts is so far in advance of other systems of apparatus for primary instruction as to create an impression in the mind of the one who first studies it that FROEBEL is the original discoverer of the pedagogical law of self-activity in the pupil. The teacher who has already learned correct methods of instruction or who has read some in the history of pedagogy, knows this principle of self-activity, but has never found outside of the kindergarten so wonderful a system of devices for the proper education of the child of five years old.

(The first group of gifts, including the first six of the twenty, as already remarked, takes up the forms of solids and their division and therefore deals with forms and numbers as regards solids. The second group of gifts includes the four from the seventh to the tenth and concerns surfaces; it leads up from the manipulation of thin blocks or tablets, to drawing with a pencil on paper ruled in squares. In drawing the child has reached the ideal representation of solids by means of light and shade—marks made on a surface to represent outlines. The intermediate gifts—the eighth and ninth—relate to stick-laying and ring-laying, representing outlines of objects by means of straight and curved sticks and wires. This in itself, is a well-devised link between the quadrangular and triangular tablets (which are treated only as surfaces) and the art of drawing—we have a complete transition from the tangible solid to the ideal representation of it.)

Counting and the elementary operations in numbers continue through all the subsequent groups of gifts, but in the first group are the chief object. In the first group the solid in its various shapes is the object of study for the child. He learns to recognize and name the surfaces, corners, angles, &c., which bound it. In the second group the surface and its corners or angles become the sole object. But the child begins the second group with the surface represented by tablets (thin blocks) and proceeds to represent more outlines by means of sticks or wire, (in the eighth gift,) and then to leave the solid form altogether and to make an ideal one by means of pencil-marks on slate or paper—(in the tenth gift.) The drawing paper, ruled in squares of an inch like the kindergarten table, is the best device for training the muscles of the fingers and hand to accuracy. The untrained muscles of the hand of the child cannot guide the pencil so as to make entire forms at first. But by the device of the ruled squares he is enabled to construct forms by the simple process of drawing straight lines vertical, horizontal, and oblique, connecting the sides and corners of the ruled squares. The training of the eye and hand in the use of this tenth gift is the surest and most effective discipline ever invented for the purpose.

Here it becomes evident that if the school is to prepare especially for the arts and trades, it is the kindergarten which is to accomplish the object. For the training of the muscles—if it is to be a training for special skill in manipulation must be begun in early youth. As age advances it becomes more difficult to acquire new phases of manual dexterity.

Two weeks' practice of holding objects in his right hand will make the infant in his first year, right-handed for life. The muscles yet in a pulpy consistency are very easily set in any fixed direction. The child trained

for one year on FROBELL'S gifts and occupations will acquire a skilful use of his hands and a habit of accurate measurement of the eye which will be his possession for life.

But the arts and trades are provided for in a still more effective manner by the subsequent groups of gifts. The first group, as we have seen, trains the eye and the sense of touch and gives a technical acquaintance with solids and with the elementary operations of arithmetic. The second group frees him from the hard limits which have confined him to the reproduction of forms by mere solids, and enables him to represent by means of light and shade. His activity at each step becomes more purely creative as regards the production of forms and more rational as regards intellectual comprehension:—for he ascends from concrete particular, tangible objects, to abstract, general truths and archetypal forms.

The third group of gifts includes the eleventh and twelfth, and develops new forms of skill, less general and more practical. Having learned how to draw outlines of objects by the first ten gifts the eleventh and twelfth gifts teach the pupil how to embroider, *i. e.*, how to represent outlines of objects by means of needle and thread. The eleventh gift takes the first step by teaching the use of the perforating needle. The child learns to represent outlines of forms by perforations in paper or cardboard. Then in the twelfth gift he learns the art of embroidering; and of course with this he learns the art of sewing and its manifold kindred arts. The art of embroidery calls into activity the muscles of the hand and especially those of the fingers, the eye in accurate measurement, and the intellectual activities required in the geometrical and arithmetical processes involved in the work.

The fourth group of gifts (including the thirteenth to the eighteenth) introduces the important art of weaving and plaiting.

Among the primitive arts of man this was the most useful. It secures the maximum of lightness with the maximum of strength by using fragile material in such a manner as to convert the linear into the surface, and to combine the weak materials into the form of mutual firm support.

The thirteenth gift (with which the fourth group begins) teaches how to cut the paper into strips; the fourteenth weaves the strips into mats or baskets with figures of various devices formed by the meshes; the fifteenth gift uses thin slats of wood for plaiting, and the sixteenth uses the same jointed, with a view to reproducing forms of surfaces; the seventeenth gift intertwines paper, and the eighteenth constructs elaborate shapes by folding paper. This group constructs surfaces by the method of combining strips, or linear materials;—vessels of capacity (baskets, sieves, nets, etc.,) clothing of woven cloth, shelter (tents, etc.,) are furnished by branches of this art.

Wood is linear in its structure, and stronger in the direction of the grain of the wood. Hence it became necessary to invent a mode of adding lateral strength by crossing the fibres in the form of weaving or plaiting, in order to secure the maximum of strength with the minimum of bulk and weight. Besides wood, there are various forms of flexible plants (the willow, etc.,) and textile fibres (hemp, flax, cotton, linen, etc.,

which cannot be utilized except in this manner, having longitudinal but not lateral cohesion.

In the fourth group of gifts the industrial direction of the work of the kindergarten becomes the most pronounced. There is more of practical value and less of theoretic value in its series of six gifts (thirteenth to eighteenth). But its disciplines are still general ones, like drawing, and furnish a necessary training for the hands and eyes of all who will labor for a livelihood—and besides these,—for all who will practise elegant employments for relaxation (ladies' embroidery) or athletic sports and amusements (the games and amusements that test accuracy of hand and eye, or mathematical combination, as marksmanship, hunting, fishing, ball-playing, archery, quoits, bowling, chess-playing, cards, etc.)

✓The fifth group, including the nineteenth and twentieth gifts, teaches the production of solid forms—as the fourth teaches the production of surfaces from the linear. The nineteenth, using corks (or peas soaked in water) and pieces of wire or sticks of various lengths and pointed ends, imitates various real objects and geometrical solids by producing their outlines or edges. This gift, too, furnishes the preparation for drawing in perspective. The twentieth, and last gift, uses some modelling material (potter's clay, beeswax, or other plastic substance) and teaches modelling of solid objects.)

This group of gifts is propædæutic to the greater part of the culinary arts so far as they give shape to articles of food. It also prepares for the various arts of the foundry—casting or modelling—of the pottery, etc., and the fine arts of sculpture and the preparation of architectural ornament.

✓In the common school, drawing—which has obtained only a recent and precarious foothold in our course of study—is the only branch which is intended to cultivate skill in the hand and accuracy in the eye. The Kindergarten, on the other hand, develops this by all of its groups of gifts.

Not only is this training of great importance by reason of the fact that most children must depend largely upon manual skill for their future livelihood, but, from a broader point of view, we must value skill as the great potency which is emancipating the human race from drudgery by the aid of machinery. Inventions will free man from thralldom to time and space.

By reason of the fact already adverted to, that a short training of certain muscles of the infant will be followed by the continued growth of the same muscles through his after life, it is clear how it is that the two years of the child's life (his fifth and sixth) or even one year or a half-year, in the kindergarten will start into development activities of muscle and brain which will secure deftness and delicacy of industrial power in all after life. ✓The rationale of this is found in the fact that it is a pleasure to use muscles already inured to use; in fact a much-used muscle demands a daily exercise as much as the stomach demands food. But an unused muscle, or a mere rudiment of a muscle, that has never been used, gives pain in its first use. Its use is accompanied with laceration of tissue and followed by lameness or by distress on using it again. Hence it happens that the body shrinks from using an unused muscle, but on the contrary

demands the frequent use of muscles already trained to use. Hence in a thousand ways unconscious ourselves, we manage to exercise daily whatever muscles we have already trained, and thus to keep in practice physical aptitudes for skill in any direction. The carriage of a man who appears awkward to us is so because of the fact that he uses only a few muscles of his body and holds the others under constraint as though he possessed no power to use them. Freedom of body, which we term *gracefulness*, is manifested in the complete command of every limb by the will. This is the element of beauty in the Greek Statuary. The gymnastic training may be easily recognized in a young man by his free carriage—as he moves, he uses a greater variety of muscles than the man of uncultivated physique. It follows that a muscle once trained to activity keeps itself in training or even adds by degrees to its development simply by demanding its daily exercise and securing it by some additional movement which it has added as subsidiary to activities in which other muscles are chiefly concerned. In his manner of sitting or rising, of walking or running, even of breathing, of writing or reading, one man varies from another through the use or disuse of subsidiary muscles thus kept in training or allowed to remain as undeveloped rudiments.

(I have in this protracted discussion of the signification of FROEBEL's gifts as a preparation for industrial life, indicated my own grounds for believing that the kindergarten is worthy of a place in the common-school system. It should be a sort of sub-primary education, and receive the pupil at the age of four or four and a half years and hold him until he completes his sixth year. By this means we gain the child for one or two years when he is good for nothing else but education, and not of much value even for the education of the school as it is and has been. The disciplines of Reading and Writing, Geography and Arithmetic, as taught in the ordinary primary school are beyond the powers of the average child not yet entered upon his seventh year. And beyond the seventh year the time of the child is too valuable to use it for other than general disciplines—reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.,—and drawing. He must not take up his school time with learning handicraft.

The kindergarten utilizes a period of the child's life for preparation for the arts and trades without robbing the school of a portion of its needed time.

Besides this industrial phase of the subject we must take note of another on the family side. At the age of three years the child begins to emerge from the circumscribed life of the family and to acquire an interest in the life of society and a proclivity to form relationship with it. This increases until the school period begins at his seventh year. The fourth, fifth, and sixth years are years of transition not well provided for either by family life in the United States, or by Society. In families of great poverty, the child forms evil associations on the street and is initiated into crime. By the time he is ready to enter the school he is hardened in vicious habits, beyond the power of the school to eradicate. In families of wealth the custom is to entrust the care of the child in this period of his life to some servant without pedagogical skill and generally

without strength of will-power. The child of wealthy parents usually inherits the superior directive power of the parents who have by their energy acquired and preserved the wealth. Its manifestation in the child is not reasonable, considerate, will-power, but arbitrariness and self-will—with such a degree of stubbornness that it quite overcomes the feebler native will of the servant who has charge of the children. (It is difficult to tell which class the kindergarten benefits most. Society is benefited by the substitution of a rational training of the child's will during his transition period. If he is a child of poverty he is saved by the good associations and the industrial and intellectual training that he gets. If he is a child of wealth, he is saved by the kindergarten from ruin through self-indulgence and the corruption ensuing on weak management in the family. The worst elements in the community are the corrupted and ruined men who were once youths of unusual directive power, children of parents of great will-power. *Pier*)

Here then is a sufficient justification for the kindergarten in our common-school system. But the enthusiastic disciples of FROEBEL will turn away from this view of the favorite institution with a twinge of pain. This is not the justification of the kindergarten which they will adopt. They see moral regeneration of the human race as about to follow the new education, and it cannot be that this sordid industrial view is the chief ground for the introduction of the kindergarten into the public school.

I yield to their protest. I do not think that industrial and mathematical training is the whole of the educational result of the kindergarten. There is much else—some of it is similar to the benefits derived from the ordinary primary school, and some of it is additional. The instruction in manners and polite habits which goes on in all well-conducted kindergartens is of great value. The child is taught to behave properly at the table, to be clean in his personal habits, to be neat in the arrangement of his apparatus, to practice the etiquette and amenities of polite life. These things are much better provided for in FROEBEL's system than elsewhere. Moreover, there is a cultivation of imagination and of the inventive power, which possesses great significance for the future intellectual growth of the individual. The habits of regularity, punctuality, silence, obedience to established rules, and self-control, are taught to as great a degree as is desirable for pupils of that age, but not by any means so perfectly as in the ordinary well-conducted school. The two kinds of attention that are developed so well in a good school: (1) the attention of each pupil to his own task—so absorbed in it that he is oblivious to the work of the class reciting; and (2) the attention of the pupil in the class that is reciting, to the recitation,—an attention to the work of the pupil who is reciting—the attention of the whole class being concentrated on the same subject:—the first of these kinds of attention is the attention of industry, the second is that of critical observation—these kinds of attention are not so well developed in the kindergarten as in the primary school—nor is it to be expected that they should be.

The freedom of constraint which is essential in the Kindergarten or in any school for pupils of five years of age, allows much interference on the

part of each pupil with the work of others, and hence there is much distraction of attention. It is quite difficult to preserve an exact balance between the freedom from constraint and the respect due from one pupil to another. The teacher of the kindergarten is liable to allow the brisk, strong-willed children to interfere with the others and to occupy their attention too much.

As regards imagination and inventive power, while it is very important, it is easily stimulated to an abnormal degree. For if it is accompanied by conceit, there is a corresponding injury done to the faith and reverence of the child, traits which must accompany the child if he would come to the stores of wisdom which his race has preserved for him. The wisest men are those who have availed themselves most of the collected wisdom of the race. Self-activity, it is true, is essential to the assimilation of the intellectual patrimony, but it is a reverent spirit only that can sustain one in the long labor of acquiring, and mastering that patrimony.

The cultivation of language—of the power of expression, is much emphasized by the advocates of the kindergarten, and, I believe with fair results.

There is a species of philosophy, or view of the world, connected with the system which undoubtedly exercises a great influence over the minds of the followers of FROEBEL. It is apparently a system founded on that of SCHELLING—the famous “identity system” which defined the absolute to be the indifference or identity of spirit and nature. Its defect is that it deals with antitheses as resolvable only into “indifference” points—hence the highest principle must be an unconscious one—a pantheistic system when logically carried out. But FROEBEL does not seem to have carried it out strictly. He uses it chiefly to build on it as a foundation, his propædæutics of reflection, or the training of the thinking activity. Antithesis or the doctrine of opposites (mind and nature, light and darkness, sweet and sour, &c.) belongs only to the second elementary stage of reflection. It is, however, a necessary stage of thought and far above the activity of sense-perception. But compared with the thinking activity of the comprehending reason it is still very crude. Moreover, from the fact that it is not guided by a principle above reflection, it is very uncertain in its results. It is liable to fall from the stage of reflection which cognizes antitheses (antithesis is *essential* relation, relation which gives character to the terms of the relation) to the stage of reflection below it, which cognizes mere “likeness” and “difference” (which constitute non-essential relation). Such imperfection I conceive to belong to FROEBEL’s philosophic views, though I am far from attributing this as a fault to his pedagogics. For his philosophy is far deeper than that of PESTALOZZI, while his pedagogical system is more consistent both in theory and practice.

As regards the claimed transcendence of the system over all others in the way of moral development: I am inclined to grant some degree of superiority to it, but not for intrinsic reasons. It is because the child is taken at the age when he is liable to great demoralization at home, and is submitted to a gentle but firm discipline in the Kindergarten, that the new education proves of more than ordinary value as a moral discipline. The children of the poor, at the susceptible age of five years get many

lessons on the street that tend to corrupt them. The children of the rich, meeting no wholesome restraint, become self-willed and self-indulgent. The Kindergarten may save both classes and make rational self-control take the place of unrestrained, depraved impulse.

But the Kindergarten itself has dangers. The cultivation of self-activity may be excessive and tend to pertness and conceit. The pupil may get to be irreverent and overbearing—hardened against receiving instruction from others. In fact with a teacher whose discernment is dimmed by too much sentimental theory there is great danger that the weeds of selfishness will thrive faster among the children than the wholesome plants of self-knowledge and self-control. The apotheosis of childhood and infancy is a very dangerous theory to put in practice. It does well enough in WORDSWORTH'S great Ode as a sequence of the doctrine of Pre-existence, and it is quite necessary that we should, as educators, never forget that the humblest child—nay the most depraved child—has within him the possibility of the highest angelic being. But this angelic nature is only *implicit* and not explicit in the child, in the savage or in the uneducated. To use the language of ARISTOTLE, the undeveloped human being is a "*first entelechy*" while the developed cultured man is a second "*entelechy*." Both are "*by nature*" rational beings, but only the cultured man is rational actually. "By nature" signifies "potentially" or "containing the possibility of." There is no technical expression in the history of pedagogy with which more juggling has been done than with the word "nature." As used by most writers it signifies the ideal or normal type of the growth of anything. The nature of the oak realizes itself in the acorn-bearing monarch of the forest. The nature of man is realized in the angelic, god-like, being whose intellect, and will, and emotions are rational, moral, and pervaded by love. We hear the end of education spoken of as the "harmonious development of human nature, physical, intellectual, moral, and affectional." This "nature" in the sense of ideal or normal type, is however, liable to be confounded with "nature" in the opposite sense, viz.: nature as the external world. This confusion is the worst that could happen, when we are dealing with the problem of human life. For man by nature (i. e. as not self-made) is only the infant, or savage, the mere animal,—and his possible angelic nature is *only* possible. Moreover this possibility never will become actuality except through his own self-activity—he must make himself rational. For nature as the external world will never do this for him. Indeed, when nature as the external world is most active in its processes—say in the torrid zone—there the development of man will be most retarded. Nature as external world is a world of dependence, each thing being conditioned by everything else and hence under fate. The humblest clod on the earth pulsates with vibrations that have travelled hither from the farthest star. But the nature of man—human nature—must be freedom and not fate. It must be self-determined and not a mere "*thing*" which is made to be what it is by the constraining activity of the totality of conditions. Hence those who confuse these two meanings of "nature" juggle with the term and in one place mean the rational ideal of man, the self-determining mind, and in another place they mean a thing as the product of nature in time and space.

The result of this juggling is the old pedagogical contradiction found in ROUSSEAU throughout, and now and then in all pedagogical reformers, PESTALOZZI in particular, and even LOCKE before ROUSSEAU. To become rational man must learn to practice self-control, and to substitute moral purpose for mere impulse. Man inherits from Nature in time and space impulses and desires and as subject to them he is only a *Prometheus vinctus*, a slave of appetite and passion like all other animals. The infant begins his existence with a maximum amount of unconscious impulse and a minimum of conscious, rational, moral purpose. The disciple of FROEBEL who apotheosizes infancy and says with WORDSWORTH, :

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy,"

and who thinks the child is a

"Mighty prophet! Seer blest,
On whom those truths do rest
Which we are toiling all our lives to find,"

is prone to regard the Kindergarten as a "Child's Paradise," wherein he should be allowed to develop unrestrainedly. The principle: *laissez faire*—"let him alone"—is to fill the world with angels.

This belief in the perfection of Nature is the arch-heresy of education. It is the more dangerous because it has a side of deepest truth—the truth which makes education possible, viz. ; the possibility which man possesses of regeneration—of putting off his natural impulses and desires, his animal selfishness, and of putting on righteousness and holiness. His ideal nature must be made or realized by himself in order to be. His real nature as a product of time and space must be annulled and subordinated.

(The child as individual and without availing himself of the help of his fellows is a mere slave—a thing—a being controlled by fate. Through participation with his fellow-men united into institutions—those infinite, rational organisms, the product of the intellect and will of the race conspiring through the ages of human history and inspired by the divine purpose which rules all as Providence,—through participation in institutions man is enabled to attain freedom, to complement his defects as individual by the deeds of the race. He subdues nature in time and space and makes it his servant, he collects the shreds of experience from the individuals of the race and combines them into wisdom, and preserves and transmits the same from generation to generation. He invents the instrumentalities of intercommunication—the alphabet, the art of printing, the telegraph and railroad, the scientific society, the publishing house, the bookstore, the library, the school, and greater than all, the newspaper. The poor, squalid individual, an insignificant atom in space and time, can by aid of these great institutions lift himself up to culture and infinitude. From being mere individual he can become generic, i. e., realize in himself the rationality of the entire species of the human race. By education we mean to do exactly this thing: to give to the individual the means of this participation in the aggregate labors of humanity.

Hence we are bound to consider education practically as a process of initiating the particular individual into the life of his race as intellect and

will-power. We must give him the means to help himself and the habit and custom of helping himself to participate in the labors of his fellow-men and to become a contributor to the store of productions created by mankind. Institutions—the family; civil society with its arts and trades, and professions, and establishments, schools, &c.; the state with its more comprehensive organizations; and finally the church;—these are greater than the individual and they are products of his ideal nature, and exist solely as means whereby the individual may develop his ideal.

The Kindergarten then has the same general object that the school has had all along:—to eliminate what is merely animal from the child's soul, and to develop in its place the rational and spiritual life.)

Now as regards the theory of the Kindergarten there is one more consideration which is too important to pass by. The theory of Play as an educational element.

The school had been too much impressed with the main fact of its mission, viz.: to eliminate the animal nature and to superinduce the spiritual nature, and had not noticed the educative function of play. FROEBEL is the first fully to appreciate this and to devise a proper series of disciplines for the youngest children.

The old *régime* of the school did not pay respect enough to the principle of self-activity.

It sacrificed spontaneity in an utterly unnecessary manner instead of developing it into rational self-determination.

Hence it produced human machines governed by prescription and conventionality, and but few enlightened, spontaneous personalities who possessed insight as well as law-abiding habit. Such machines governed by prescription would develop into law-breakers the moment that the pressure of social constraint was removed from them. They did not possess enough individuality of their own. They had not assimilated what they had been compelled to practice.

Now in play the child realizes for himself his spontaneity—his arbitrariness and caprice. In its positive phase he produces whatever his fancy dictates; in its negative phase he destroys again what he has made, or whatever is his own. He realizes the depth of originality which his will-power involves—the power to create and the power to destroy. This is the root of his personality—the source of his freedom. Deprive a child of his play and you produce arrested development in his character. Nor can his play be rationalized by the kindergarten so as to dispense with the utterly spontaneous untamed play of the child wherein he gives full scope to his fancy and caprice. Even in the kindergarten, just as in the school, there must be prescription.

But the kindergarten wisely and gently controls in such a manner as to leave room for much of the pure spontaneity of play. It prescribes tasks but preserves the form of play as much as is possible. If the child were held to a rigid accountability in the kindergarten for the performance of his task, it would then cease to be play and become labor.—Labor performs the prescribed task. Play prescribes for itself. The attempt to preserve the form of self-prescription for the child in his tasks, is what saves the kindergarten from being a positive injury to the child at his tender

and immature age. It is the preservation of the form of play and at the same time the induction of the substance of prescription that constitutes what is new and wonderful in FROEBEL's method of instruction. There is a gentle insinuation of habits of attention, of self-control, of concert of action, of considerateness towards others, of desire to participate in the common result of the school, that succeeds in accomplishing this necessary change of heart in the child—from selfishness to self-renunciation,—with-
outsacrificing his spontaneity so much as is done in the old-fashioned primary school. And it gets large measures of the benefits of the school, that the child would have lost had he remained at home in the family. The child, too, at this period of his life had begun to experience a hunger for the more substantial things of social life which the school alone could satisfy. How happy therefore, is the discovery of FROEBEL in this place to give the child what is substantial without roughly crushing out his individuality at the same time!

After we have decided in the affirmative the essential questions relative to the reasonableness of the course of study and discipline of the kindergarten; its suitability to the age of the children, its effect upon the education that follows it, we come to the subsidiary questions regarding expense, training of teachers, and details of management. These questions are not important unless the decision is reached that the kindergarten theory is substantially correct. If it is found to be (as we have decided it to be) a valuable adjunct to the school; then we must solve the practical problems of how to introduce it into the public-school system. The problem is how to meet the expense. If the traditional form of the kindergarten be adopted—that of a teacher to each dozen of pupils—and that number forming an isolated kindergarten—the annual cost of tuition would be from fifty to one hundred dollars per pupil, a sum too extravagant to be paid by any public-school system. The average tuition per pupil in public-school systems of the United States ranges from \$12.00 to \$20.00 for the year's schooling of 200 days. No school board would be justified in expending five times as much, per pupil for tuition in a kindergarten, as it expended for the tuition of a pupil in the primary or grammar school.

It is necessary to limit the number of pupils per teacher, to twelve or twenty, while the primary school can manage fifty or seventy, it becomes likewise necessary to invent a system of cheaper teachers. At once, the Lancasterian, or Monitorial, system suggests itself as a model for the organization of the cheap kindergarten. The kindergarten shall be a large one—located in a room of ample size to hold five or ten sets of tables, each set to have fifteen children attending it, and presided over by a novitiate teacher—the whole room being under the charge of a thoroughly-competent teacher—one of experience and skill and well-versed in the theory and practice of FROEBEL's system. The director of the kindergarten must be a well-paid teacher, receiving as much as the principal of a small primary school. Her assistants, the "novitiate teachers," are learners of the system. The first year they shall be volunteers and receive no salary; the second year, or as soon as they pass the first examination in theory and practice of the kindergarten, they are to receive a small salary as "paid assistants." After a year's service as paid assistants (or after a

longer time if not yet qualified) they may pass a second examination and if found competent, be appointed directors, and receive a higher salary. In the St. Louis kindergartens, the number of sixty pupils entitles the director to one paid assistant, and there is one additional assistant appointed for each thirty pupils additional. Thus there would be a director and four paid assistants if the kindergarten had 150 pupils. The director would receive \$350.00 per annum and each paid assistant \$125.00 per annum. The cost of tuition based on teachers' salaries—would be \$850.00 per annum for the 150 pupils—being less than \$6.00 per annum for each.

Besides the salaried teachers of the kindergarten, it is expected that there will be an equal or greater number of volunteers. In order to make it worth while for volunteers to join the system as well as for the improvement of the salaried teachers, it is necessary to have two persons of very superior ability, as general supervisors, that can give instruction, once a week, on the theory and practice (the "gifts and occupations") of FROEBEL's system.

The young woman will find so much culture of thought to be derived from the discussion of FROEBEL's insights and theories—and so much peculiarly-fitting experience from her daily class in the kindergarten—experience that will prove invaluable to her as a wife and mother—that she will serve her apprenticeship in the kindergarten gladly, though it be no part of her intention to follow teaching as a vocation.

It is a part of the system as an adjunct to the public schools, to educate the young women in these valuable matters relating to the early training of children. I have thought that the benefit derived by the two hundred young women at work in the St. Louis kindergartens from the lectures of Miss BLOW to be of sufficient value to compensate the city for the entire cost of the kindergartens. A nobler and more enlightened womanhood will result, and the family will prove a better nurture for the child.

Here we come upon the practical difficulty. If the teachers are no better than the average mothers in our families, if they are not better than the average primary teacher, it is evident that the system of FROEBEL cannot induce any great reform in society. "It is useless to expect social regeneration from persons who are not themselves regenerated."

In our St. Louis work,—now counting fifty separate daily sessions and enrolling over six thousand children in the year 1878-79—we have been very fortunate in having a lady of great practical sagacity, of profound and clear insight, and of untiring energy, to organize our kindergartens and instruct our teachers. Her (Miss SUSAN E. BLOW's) disinterested and gratuitous services have been the means of securing for us a system that now furnishes its own directors, assistants, and supervisors.

There is another important point connected with the economy of the kindergarten. The session should not last over three hours for the children of this age. Hence each room permits two different sessions to be held in it per day: one in the morning and one in the evening, thus accommodating double the number of pupils. In some cases where the teacher has attained experience and strength sufficient, she teaches in both sessions and receives a higher grade of salary for the work (directors in the St. Louis kindergartens receive \$600 for two sessions per day and

\$350 for one session; paid assistants receive \$125 for one session and \$200 per annum for two daily sessions).

The furniture of the kindergarten is made up of small single chairs and small tables, each table capable of accommodating two children—all the furniture being movable; the surface of the table being marked off into divisions one inch square. It is better to use the small tables than large ones which will accommodate a whole class; for the small ones may be combined into large ones of any desirable size and may be easily arranged into any shape or figure and placed in any part of the room by the children themselves. It is necessary to use the floor of the room during one exercise each day for the games (when all the children are collected "on the circle"); at this time it may be desirable to move the small tables to the sides of the room, and with small tables this can be easily accomplished. Again, in the absence of one of the teachers, it may become necessary to combine two classes into one, uniting two tables. The small tables are therefore an important item in the economy of the kindergarten.

With these suggestions, I leave the subject, believing that they are sufficient to justify the directors of public schools in making the kindergarten a part of the system. The advantage to the community in utilizing the age from four to six in training the hand and eye, in developing habits of cleanliness, politeness, self-control, urbanity, industry; in training the mind to understand numbers and geometric forms, to invent combinations of figures and shapes, and to represent them with the drawing-pencil—these and other valuable lessons in combination with their fellow-pupils, and obedience to the rule of their superiors—above all, the useful suggestions as to methods of instruction which will come from the kindergarten and penetrate the methods of the other schools, will I think, ultimately prevail in securing to us the establishment of this beneficent institution.

At the conclusion of Mr. HARRIS's remarks, the discussion upon the subject was opened by LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Philadelphia, who spoke in substance as follows:

Scientists tell us that the primary cell is so small that the finest microscope can not discover whether it belongs to the vegetable or animal world; no searching can find out whether within that almost infinitesimal space lies hidden the exquisite beauty of the blossom, the green leafiness of the forest tree, or that bundle of possibilities—a human being. So in the infant, sleeps the germs of after character, whether good or evil, for the little child is father of the man or mother of the woman that shall be. Then is it not plain that in this matter of education we must begin at the beginning? If the structure be unsteady, it is the foundation we seek to make secure; if our school system does not accomplish all, it should let us commence to repair its defects in the primary methods of instruction.

Just here, let me say, that if at any time during this discussion I may seem to be severe upon the faults of our common schools, it is simply

because I love them so well that I would have them faultless. If I dwell upon what they have failed to do, rather than upon what they have done, it is only because I am so earnest a believer in them, that, seeing their short-comings, I speak out that I may urge a remedy. If it were otherwise, I should not care to condemn. I should choose, indeed, to praise, since that is always pleasanter, and the Kindergarten needs not the aid of the public school, its success is already assured without that; it is the public school which needs the Kindergarten, and because of that I plead.

That there is a want of harmony in our present method of education—the intellect being too often cultivated at the expense of the physical powers, and the small modicum of moral training given being so abstract as to prove quite ineffectual when subjected to the strain of real life and its temptations—but few educators will deny, while the people, the parents are clamoring for a change in our course of study, that their children may be better fitted for their work in the world. These are serious defects, but the remedy is at hand, for these, which are the weaknesses of the old mode of instruction, are the strong points of the New Education. Incorporate FROEBEL's idea into our present method, and the evil is overcome; make the Kindergarten the foundation of our free-school system, then make the system consistent from beginning to end, and we shall have a system as perfect and complete as it is symmetrical. But this can not be easily done. It will cost us much money; yet, is it not worth while? Are not human beings of more value than silver and gold? Is it not cheaper for the State to educate the children of the poor and ignorant into noble women and men than to support them as paupers, or punish them as criminals? And this, I claim, the Kindergarten, supplemented by the public schools, can do. Does this seem like an exaggeration? Permit me then to review briefly some of the leading points of the New Education, that I may prove what I have affirmed.

Beginning by recognizing the fact that the destiny of each soul is activity; that it was sent upon earth, first, to conquer itself, and then conquer the world, FROEBEL goes on to assert, that "man is the child of nature, the child of man, and the child of God;" and that "education can only fulfil its mission when it views the human being in this three-fold relation, and takes each into account;" and upon this assertion is based the method of the Kindergarten. First, as the child of nature, the little one's physical wants are attended to; it is made comfortable, primarily, that it may be happy; secondarily, that its bodily development may be unhindered. Not only this, but the games and plays are so managed that they tend to give still greater suppleness and vigor to the little bodies, as well as to afford plenty of healthful exercise, while the gifts and occupations train the tiny fingers to a dexterity which is simply marvellous in such young children; and thus begins industrial education. Even at the tender age of three, the young soul has already entered upon its mission, having learned to control, in some degree, its physical faculties, and with its first finished bit of work, it has commenced to conquer the world. Second, as the child of man, the human being steps out of the circle of necessity into the realm of freedom, and becomes conscious of self. Here begins, mainly, his mental activity; here, too, is

the point of departure between the new education and the old, for he is not taught to read; he has no books. FROEBEL would have the child's knowledge—like its consciousness, begin within the narrow bounds of its own personality and radiate outward, instead of seeking to grasp that which the newly-awakened intellect is too weak to comprehend. He would have them know of the living world around them, before they are set to study the dead knowledge stored in books. He would develop the mental faculties in their natural order; first, the perceptive, and then the reasoning. And so the Kindergartner takes up things—not to tell the child about them—she is too wise for that; nor even to show them to the child—she is too kind; she grants at once the privilege (dear even to grown people) of handling, and places in the child's own hands the object to be studied; lets him test it as he will, and there is very little which can escape these keen young senses, sharpened as they are, by well-directed though unconscious education. Then the little ones are allowed to tell (they are always pleased to impart their new-found knowledge) what they have learned. What training is here for those eyes of the soul—the perceptive faculties; what cultivation of habits of accurate observation, close attention, and comparison; and what command of language, only those who are familiar with the results of the New Education can know, and this without the aid of books at all. Then, too, the creative faculty is aroused; invention is encouraged; the imagination stimulated, and a love for beauty, symmetry, and law inculcated, along with habits of neatness, order, regularity, and dispatch. All this is easily attained by the use of the gifts and occupations, while the plays afford opportunities for the teaching of both manners and morals.

All thinkers, from PLATO down, have agreed that the teacher must know something of the nature of the human being, and consider his powers and limitations before he can efficiently train him, but FROEBEL did more than this—went further; he wisely remembered that the human being is but a child at first, and so studied the child nature as no educator before or since has ever done, and it was because he observed that the earliest manifestations of self-activity take the form of play that he incorporated plays and games into the Kindergarten. It is true that these have been the subject of much unreasonable criticism—the occasion of much absurd opposition; but the criticism is readily refuted, the opposition is easily met. For instance, it is objected that play, real play, is entirely spontaneous, the outcome of caprice, and that if it be guided, or in any way controlled, it is no longer play. That sounds well, but it is not true; it is an idea, not a fact. For children are always more or less confined in their games to certain surroundings or appliances, limited more or less by certain restrictions or circumstances, even if they play by themselves; and if they play with others, they must, of necessity, be subjected in a greater or less degree to the will of their playmates. What matters it then if these playmates be older than themselves, and those who, in their turn, are guided by motives higher than mere caprice? Children delight in the companionship of grown-up people, and are never happier than when those who are wise enough and good enough to become as little children, join them in their games. Besides, their plays

are generally imitations of the scenes or actions of real life, often of its follies, sometimes of its vices. The children would enter as heartily and happily into new plays which represent pure and pleasant things as into the old games which are usually handed down from one generation of children to another, and are never entirely spontaneous. And as for any restraining or refining influence, which the presence of the teacher may give, it is all clear gain to the joy of the occasion, for roughness does not add to happiness, and boisterousness is no indication of mirth.

But the child must learn to feel that it is a link in the great chain of humanity, and "to forget self in doing loving acts for others," and education has not fulfilled its mission till it remembers that the human being is the child of God, as well as the child of man and of nature, and so takes into training the higher faculties—the moral; then will the full chord of the child's being be struck; then, and not till then, will the harmony be perfect. But this training, too, must be concrete, instead of abstract, practical, not theoretical, for the moral, like the mental and physical powers, can only be strengthened by exercise—a fact too often forgotten by the instructors of youth, who think (it would seem) that to store the mind of their pupils with good precepts and great truths, should result in pure and perfect characters. "You can not," says FROEBEL, "do heroic deeds in words, or by talking of them, but you can educate a child to self-activity and to work, and through them to a faith which will not be dead," and so he has given abundant opportunities in his system for the exercise of the moral powers, and every condition favorable to the acquisition of good habits as a basis for all the virtues; but there is no memorizing of commandments, and no repetition of words whatever. Thus, the child in the Kindergarten is not constantly told to be good; he is inspired to be so by loving interest and unflinching sympathy; he is not perpetually urged to curb his temper and control his will, but he is helped to do it with gentle firmness and unfaltering patience. He does not hear the words of the Bible continually on the lips of his teacher, but the truths of the Bible grow into his heart, and its principles become a part of his character. He is not commanded to love his Creator, but the little child, loving and beloved, takes in very naturally and gladly the idea of God; his young soul leaps lightly the chasm between the seen and unseen, and loves with the same love, trusts with the same trust—the father and mother on earth, and Him, who is both Father and Mother in Heaven. Nor is this all; accustomed from the first to manifest their love in deeds rather than in words, such children never know lip service, but pass at once into the higher life of those whose good works shall glorify the Father, thus proving FROEBEL's assertion: "I have based my education on religion, and it must lead to religion."

Ours is a generation, sound in neither body, mind, nor soul, and the next is no better; and even the most conservative are beginning to recognize the fact that our idea of education hitherto has been too much confined to the cultivation of the intellect alone, and already the reaction has set in—in favor of some degree of physical culture, while our methods of mental training are constantly improving; but of moral or religious teaching in our public schools, we have as yet but the vaguest idea. How

could we? Great problems, like that of church and State perplex us; old war-cries, such as the "Bible in the public schools," sound again, and bitter sectarian feuds start up at the mere mention. But the Kindergarten arouses no conflict of authority; asserts no dogma; promulgates no creed; and here the children of the Christian and the Hebrew, of the Catholic and Protestant can gather together to gain that knowledge, self-reliance, and self-control which shall lead up to true and noble living; for this teaching, though marvellous for its symmetry, its insight into the needs and capabilities of the child-nature, is, after all, greatest in its method of educating the moral powers; most wonderful in its system of development of the higher nature.

We have fallen upon degenerate days, when fraud and corruption sit in high places, and evil walks unabashed in the broad daylight, and our country needs the clear, clean consciences, the upright souls, the iron wills of earlier days, and what shall give them to us again? Education, for the elements of power lie dormant in every new-born soul, and only as they are trained for good or evil shall they ripen into deeds of honor, or deeds of dishonor. Grant, then, a broader, deeper, earlier culture, and the best first. The Jesuits were accustomed to declare that if they could have the entire charge of a child during the first seven years of its life, they were willing to relinquish him to other training; secure in the conviction that their principles were too firmly implanted ever to be eradicated; and yet, our public system of instruction (except in St. Louis) provides for no training before the child is five years old, allowing, nay, in large cities, compelling the large majority of those who attend the common schools to spend the first two of the best educational years of their life, under the worst of educational influences—those of the street, and of ignorant and often vicious homes, and then placing them, during the last two of these precious years, most frequently under the teaching of beginners—men, girls, and boys, often giddy and thoughtless, always inexperienced and immature. What blindness, what folly is this? Children have a right to the best which we can give them, and let us not grudge the time or money it may cost; then if worst comes to worst, and we must economize, better, by far, wait till they are older, when they have some power of protecting themselves against unwise or inefficient instruction, than to place these young impressionable beings under the blighting, deforming, dwarfing influences of poor teaching during their tender years. It is true that the ideal teacher—one not only born to the vocation, but who has added to genius both education and experience, is not often ready to lay all these gifts at the feet of a child; it is only those who, like FROEBEL, remember that it was the Great Teacher who said: "Except ye become as one of these, ye can not enter the Kingdom."

Thus, the true Kindergarten must have had soul-culture, as well as mental and physical training to fit her for her work, and such, and such alone, are the teachers our little ones should have. Then give them three years, or even two of the Kindergarten, with its marvellous method, which develops naturally and symmetrically the threefold nature of the child, which trains at the same time the head and the hand, the senses and the soul, which combines in such just proportions, theory and prac-

tice, knowing and doing, educates with equal skill the perceptive and reflective faculties, the intellect and the conscience; and which, while it represses the lower nature, the animal instincts, arouses the higher, the spiritual forces, to their fullest, noblest exercise. For in no other way can humanity hope to attain to that inner and outer harmony of existence which makes this world the heaven for which we long, and this life the beginning of the life eternal.

Mr. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, admitted the value of kindergarten schools, and the application of FROEBEL's principles and methods for children under six years of age, but asked to have the advocates of this system mark out a practical course of study which can be adopted in the primary schools,—composed of children from six to ten years of age,—schools for children as they are now found in towns and cities.

Miss RUTH R. BURRITT, of Philadelphia, arose to answer the question, "How the Kindergarten principles can be carried into the common-school work." She had taught in the primary schools many years before she entered the kindergarten field, and she was sure that FROEBEL's principles could be and should be carried into the lower grades of common-school work, but also into the high schools and normal schools. First the thing, then the picture, then the word. The most experienced and most highly-cultivated teachers should be placed in charge of the little children.

United States School Commissioner JOHN EATON, protested against methods being used in primary schools, but endorsed them in the college. He insisted that FROEBEL himself simply protested against university methods being applied to children. He believed that the late Prof. HENRY had touched the key-note when he agreed that education in its methods should be adjusted to the condition of the child; that kindergarten methods should not be carried to the high school. He believed in the "*historic*" development of a subject: what is true of the race is true of the individual.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts, did not believe that there could be found in all Europe a "simon pure" kindergarten, carried on according to FROEBEL's ideal as interpreted by the leading kindergartners in this country.

Mr. SHELDON wanted to know whether the method of SOCRATES was entirely dispensed with in the kindergarten? Was there not, he asked, a period, when, like SOCRATES, the teachers found it necessary to resort to the catechetical method?

Miss RUTH R. BURRITT—"No! SOCRATES never attended a kindergarten."

A. L. WADE, EDWARD A. SINGER, and Miss MARIA L. SANFORD, continued the discussion.

The President appointed the following committee on the nomination of officers:

JNO. IRVIN, of Indiana; Z. RICHARDS, of D. C.; RUTH MORRIS, of Ohio; LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Penn., and A. L. WADE, of West Va.

Adjourned.

who can suggest any way by which order can be obtained and the confusion now existing avoided? I could bring scores of witnesses to testify to the truth of these declarations of the French Commissioners, and of the *League of Boston's* Educational Ministry, but it is unnecessary to spend further time in proving a point that has never been contested.

The unanimous verdict of all who have studied our free-school system, is, that the lack of uniformity in the course of studies in the common schools of the country, and more especially the absence of any plan for inducing pupils to take up and complete a course, is the lame limb in our free-school work which has produced so much limping all over the land.

I have made the study of this subject a speciality for a quarter of a century, and propose, as a remedy for this lameness in our educational body, the universal adoption of

A GRADUATING SYSTEM FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

This system is simply the application to country schools of a plan which, centuries ago, was adopted in universities and colleges, and which succeeded so well that it was afterward introduced into academies and seminaries, and in more modern times has found its way into the high schools of cities and towns. Why a system, which had been so thoroughly tested and so generally approved in schools of high order, was never until very recently applied to elementary schools, is a question which I leave for some one else to answer.

I give it as my deliberate conclusion, drawn from observation, that the introduction of the Graduating System into the common schools of the country, under the management of an efficient superintendency, will produce as great a revolution in our educational system, as that produced upon travel on land and sea by the application of steam. One of the secret sources of power in the graduating system, is the increased interest which it produces in parents and pupils. The June Number of the *Educational News-Gleaner* contains this "gem" of thought:—"A child can learn infinitely faster when interested than when indifferent." If this be true, then the thing necessary to increase the pupil's power to learn, is to increase his interest. There is no growth either in brain power or in mental or heart culture without interest. No danger of damage to the pupil if he is interested and has plenty of pure air and exercise. Interest is the lubricating material which prevents mental "wear and tear." We seldom become tired when interested, but are *always* tired when uninterested. Interest is the product of an object in view, and the graduating system has an object—the completion of a course of study. The long hours which a young man spends with his lady love seem to him but moments, and the seven years which Jacob served for Rachel seemed to him but a few days.

In order to give progressive workers in elementary education a clear conception of the origin and operation of the system under consideration, I propose to speak of

THE GRADUATING SYSTEM FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS—ITS ORIGIN, PROGRESS, AND PROSPECTS FOR UNIVERSAL ADOPTION.

This system had its origin in 1876, in Monongalia County, West Virginia, a county bordering on Mason and Dixon's line.

I propose to give a brief statement of the circumstances under which this system originated, and to show that its introduction into the free schools of Monongalia County, produced an educational revival, unparalleled in the history of primary-school work.

I propose to prove from official reports of superintendents of several counties into which the system has been introduced that, although it is still in its infancy—in a fragmentary state, it carries with it the spirit of revival.

I propose to show that this system from its origin, has been endorsed by the leading educators and the public press of West Virginia.

I propose to prove by the minutes of the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia, that, in 1877, a resolution was adopted by that body, recommending the system to county superintendents throughout the State for their adoption.

I propose to show by State papers that the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in West Virginia, in his last annual report, recommends that the system be incorporated into the school law of the State.

I propose to show from extracts from letters written by men who stand at the very front as educators in the United States, that they give the system their hearty approval.

And, lastly, I propose to show that the system has been, within the last year, reviewed editorially in a number of the leading educational journals of the nation, and that almost without exception they have endorsed the system and have recommended its universal adoption.

And now in beginning this point of my subject I will state

HOW THE GRADUATING SYSTEM WAS INTRODUCED INTO COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

In the autumn of 1873, I was employed by Superintendent H. L. Cox, to visit the schools of Monongalia County, West Virginia. Most of my work as an educator, previous to that time, had been confined to the school-room.

I had long entertained the belief that the common-school course of study could be *completed* by the masses attending the primary schools of the nation, in less time than is now devoted to obtaining an imperfect knowledge of a *few* of the branches constituting this course. I resolved that while visiting the schools of the county, I would study the secret springs of action in school life, and try to devise a plan to facilitate primary school work, as broad in its application as the system which seeks to educate and to elevate the race. To this end I began to study the principles which prompt pupils to action, and the motives which move men to make sacrifices for the education of their offspring.

I made up my mind to visit two schools each day, and to hold an educational meeting each evening in one of the school-houses. To these evening meetings I invited teachers, pupils, and patrons of the schools.

I found that the greatest hindrance to the success of the schools, was lack of books and a want of disposition on the part of pupils to take up a sufficient number of branches. In many of the schools no subject beyond arithmetic had been introduced, although the school law of the State requires that English Grammar, History, and Geography shall be taught. I did what I could in each school to aid the teacher in the organization of classes embracing all the branches, and each evening in the educational meeting I reported the names of all schools in which such classes had been organized, and the name of the teacher in charge of each. These evening reports became a matter of public interest in every community in the county. Teachers, pupils, and patrons of schools having such classes, came from all directions to attend our meetings and hear their schools reported. Classes were organized in many schools in advance of the superintendent's visits, and he was notified of the fact and requested to report them. Thinking that I had touched the true key to success, by making public the work of each school, I published at the end of the school term in the Morgantown *Post*, a list of schools, in which classes had been formed in all the free-school branches and the name of the teacher in charge of each. The county contained at that time seventy-eight country schools, and thirty-two of these were reported in the published list—the "*roll of honor*." Quite a number of teachers whose names had not been published, informed me soon after the publication of the list, that they did not intend to be left off the roll of honor next year. I observed that teachers felt more interest in having their *names* published than pupils and patrons felt in having their *schools* published. This convinced me that the most effectual way to reach pupils and patrons of our public schools, is in some way, to make public the individual work of those pupils who are most deserving of praise. God has wisely implanted in all of us a desire to have our names and the names of our kindred and friends mentioned in connection with honorable positions. One of the highest rewards which we can offer to the diligent and obedient pupil is to *honor* him, and it is no small degree of punishment to the slothful and disobedient to let him go *unhonored*. Believing that it would aid teachers in organizing classes in the higher branches, I resolved that in the evening educational meetings which I proposed to hold while visiting the schools of the county the next winter, I would make public the names of all pupils who would take up the entire course of study.

In the autumn of 1874, when I began visiting schools, I found the complete course had been taken up in nearly every school. I was delighted with the progress made in this matter, and I began to inquire for the pupils who had taken up the full course, intending to enter their names on my Journal for the purpose of reporting them, when to my surprise I found that scarcely any of them had taken up more than two studies. One had taken up arithmetic and geography, another had taken up arithmetic and English grammar, and still another arithmetic and history, according as they had "*likes and dislikes*" for these branches. Feeling that I had not yet accomplished my purpose, I next undertook to organize in each school a class of advanced pupils who would agree to take up *all* the free-school branches. This was thought to be, as one who entered

the class expressed it, "no fool of a job," and yet, by the aid of teachers, I succeeded from day to day in most of the schools. In our educational meetings which were held each evening, I reported the names of the pupils who had entered the classes in each of the schools visited during the day, and in other schools near by. The relatives and friends of the pupils composing these classes were much pleased with these reports, and in most of our meetings the greater part of the audience was made up of relatives and friends.

Some of our best teachers entertained fears that at the close of the school term the special interest would cease, and most of the members of these classes would backslide, and thus render it necessary for us the next term to "do our first works." I soon became satisfied that these fears were well founded. Pupils had entered these classes supposing that the termination of the present school term would release them from all obligations. Very few of them had made up their minds to *complete* the course of study. In order to obviate this difficulty, I undertook to organize in each school a class of volunteers who would agree not only to *take up* the free-school course, but to *complete it*.

Pupils very naturally asked, before giving their names as volunteers, how *soon* is this work to be completed, and who is to judge whether or not it is *well done*? I replied that each one would have his own time in which to complete the course, and we would have to trust to the honor of each one to do this well. I organized two classes upon the above conditions, and in our educational meeting in the evening I stated my plan. But it created no interest. No one could see either point or edge to it. It fell "flat as a flounder." I myself felt that it was a failure, and for the first time I wished that somebody else was superintending the schools. After the meeting adjourned I retired, at the house of a friend, but found no rest. I was full of tossings to and fro. I thought of returning home and resigning, but that looked like cowardice. I thought of the pleasant places occupied by presidents and professors in colleges, and principals and teachers in high schools, and I almost envied them their pleasures. I remembered noticing not long before, upon the wall of a parlor in West Virginia, a diploma, belonging to a young lady, a graduate of the high school of Fort Wayne, Indiana—my native State. Then the inquiry came into my mind; if they graduated pupils in *high* schools, why not graduate them in *low* schools? In a moment the darkness fled from my mind,—the light flashed and I fancied it was day. I felt sure I had made the discovery. I said we will bring all the plans and appliances from the higher schools, and apply them to the primary schools.

We will have annual examinations, and commencement exercises, and we will grant diplomas, and form alumni associations.

Early next morning I entered upon my duties with renewed energies, and undertook to organize by the aid of the teacher in each school, a class of volunteers who would agree not only to take up the free-school course, but to complete it in a given length of time, and to pass a public examination in the same. I found very few pupils who were advanced far enough to enable them to complete the course during that term, so I proposed that a public examination be held by the county superintendent in

each district (not sub-district) in the county, at the end of the school term of the next year, and that each pupil who should pass such examination creditably, would receive a handsome diploma or honorary certificate, signed by the county superintendent and the teacher of the school in which he had completed the course. This class was termed

THE GRADUATING CLASS OF 1876.

I found, however, that pupils who were willing to enter this class were not numerous. Many parents expressed their doubts about the propriety of their children making such pledges. The teachers, almost without exception, and the more intelligent people, gave the plan their hearty coöperation.

At the ensuing election, held August 13, 1875, I was, without opposition, elected county superintendent, which I regarded not only a compliment to myself, but an endorsement of the graduating system which I had inaugurated.

In the autumn of 1875, as soon as the schools were fully in operation, I commenced my visitations, taking with me a sample of our free-school diploma, a handsome certificate 9 by 14 inches, neatly framed, which I exhibited in each school. I found that the graduating system was rapidly growing in popular favor, and so I undertook to organize in each school, where there was material for doing so, not only a class for 1876, but also a class for 1877. Our educational meetings which were held each evening had, in the meantime, so increased in interest that school-houses were insufficient for the accommodation of our vast audiences, and trustees of churches opened their houses of worship for our accommodation. I held while visiting that winter, forty-three of these meetings—twenty-seven in churches. Numerous topics connected with popular education were discussed at these meetings, and addresses were delivered by professors in the University, ministers of the Gospel, teachers, farmers, and mechanics. I availed myself each evening of the opportunity to report the names of those who had entered the classes of 1876 and 1877. I proposed to publish these names in the county newspaper, and a spirited emulation arose between the schools of each district, and an equal rivalry between the several districts, as to which school in each district, or which district in the county should excel in the number and quality of its graduates. Teachers, pupils, and patrons of the schools became recruiting agents to obtain volunteers, and not unfrequently the ranks were increased by pupils publicly entering the classes at our educational meetings, and almost every mail brought me letters giving names to be added to the classes.

In addition to the classes of 1876 and 1877, I suggested that each teacher form two other classes, so that each school would have four classes, and most of them did so. Pupils unprepared to enter either of these classes compose the Preparatory Department. One of the grandest results of this classification, was

THE EFFECT PRODUCED UPON PUPILS WHO ENTERED THE GRADUATING CLASSES.

They had voluntarily consented to do a certain amount of work in a given length of time, and their work would be publicly tested. Every student of human nature could anticipate the result. Pupils began to count the months, and weeks, and days, in which this work was to be accomplished. They were found numbering the pages in their history, geography, and English grammar, and counting the problems in arithmetic, in order to ascertain how many pages should be studied, and how many problems solved each day, in order to complete these studies, and review, before examination day. The work of governing was greatly reduced, thereby giving the teacher more time for his legitimate work—teaching.

In order that all may understand what I mean by the free-school course, I will say that the school law of West Virginia prescribes

A COURSE OF STUDY IN THE FREE SCHOOLS.

Section 11 of the school law reads as follows; “In the primary schools there shall be taught Orthography, Reading, Penmanship, Arithmetic, English Grammar, History, Geography, and such other branches as the Board of Education may direct.”

No College or University has a course of study more clearly defined than the law prescribes for our free schools.

Toward the close of the school term the chief topic of conversation in each community was the

FIRST ANNUAL DISTRICT EXAMINATION.

Unwilling to assume the responsibility of conducting these examinations without aid, I secured the services of Prof. H. L. Cox, Principal of the Morgantown Graded School; Prof. F. S. LYON, Principal of Preparatory Department of West-Virginia University; and Prof. W. R. WHITE, late Superintendent of Free Schools of West Virginia. Our first examination was held the 25th of February, and the last one on the 11th of March, two being held each week. Each examination occupied one day, and a commencement exercise was held each evening. The county superintendent, aided by one or more of the Professors named above, conducted each examination. The teachers of the district graded each member of the class, and granted permission to the county superintendent to graduate those who were accounted worthy.

The evening exercises consisted of original and select orations, essays, and select reading by members of the class, address by one or more of the Professors above named, and the granting of diplomas by the county superintendent. Two hundred and sixty-one pupils had entered the class of 1876, and of this number, one hundred and ninety-six completed the course and received diplomas.

I quote from my report of 1876, in order to show the interest our people felt in these examinations: “With a single exception, the largest churches in the several districts were insufficient to accommodate, even during the day, the vast numbers who came to witness the examinations. And these were not disinterested spectators; they were our most intelli-

gent people—the cream of society—men and women who had sons, or daughters, or grand-children, or friends in the class, in whom they were deeply interested.”

About the first of September, 1876, we published

THE FIRST CATALOGUE OF THE FREE SCHOOLS OF MONONGALIA COUNTY,

a copy of which I have before me. This catalogue embraces the annual report of the County Superintendent, and a report from every school in the county.

Six hundred copies were published at a cost of sixty dollars; most of them were taken by teachers and pupils at cost, and the residue were distributed gratuitously by the county superintendent.

Each school occupies one page in the catalogue. The name of the school, the name of the teacher, number of youths entitled to attend, number of youths on teacher's roll, daily average attendance, daily per cent of attendance, branches taught, and number of pupils studying each branch, the names of graduates and undergraduates, all these points of interest are presented in the report of each school.

It is certainly strange that we have never before had any plan for presenting to the public in permanent form the individual work of each school. No volume of the same cost, except the Bible, is so interesting to the families of a county as the book that contains the names and grades of the children attending the public schools.

In the autumn of 1876, as soon as the schools were fully at work, I commenced my annual visits. Fears had been entertained by some that the members of these graduating classes would conclude that graduation meant an end to study. I was highly gratified to find that these fears were without foundation, and that at least ninety per cent of the members of these classes were in school, many of them pursuing studies beyond the free-school course. Desiring to give the young people the highest mental training that our free schools can possibly afford, I introduced a plan which gave a large number of them the privilege of

WRITING FOR THE PRESS AND SPEAKING FROM THE PLATFORM.

At each one of our educational meetings, at the request of the editors, a corresponding secretary for each of our county papers—the *Morgantown New Dominion* and the *Morgantown Post*—was appointed. Nearly one hundred of our young people have thus commenced to write for public papers. I held in each district in the county, for the benefit of these classes, after giving due notice of the same,

THE FIRST ANNUAL MEETINGS OF THE ALUMNI.

The exercises in each of these meetings consisted of original and select orations, essays, and select readings. No public meetings pertaining to our free-school work, have elicited more interest, or attracted larger crowds, than these. In order to secure a permanent organization of the alumni of each district, I provided ballots, and held an election at each meeting, for a President, Vice-President, and a Secretary. A gentleman to deliver an

oration and a lady to read an essay at the district examination were also chosen by ballot. These were also elected by the members of the alumni association from its own body.

From the reports of our first annual district alumni meetings, it appears that more than eighty of the members of the class of 1876 embraced the opportunity to speak and read in the presence of large audiences. The self-possession shown by the members of the various classes in their performances, and in the election of officers, elicited universal commendation. The privilege of addressing popular assemblages, and reading to full houses, is not often given to the youth who attend our free schools. It is claimed by some that the ability to speak and read in public is possessed in a high degree by but few persons. If this be true, it is the more important that the schools in which the masses are educated, give opportunity for the development of this gift wherever it exists.

OUR SECOND ANNUAL DISTRICT EXAMINATIONS,

for the graduating class of 1877, were held at the end of the school term, and one hundred and ten pupils completed the course, and obtained diplomas. These were granted by the teachers present, on a scale from one to ten—five being medium and ten excellent. No pupil graduated whose average grade was not above seven. It was not expected that the class in the county this year would be as large as it was last year, as we had last year the cream produced by several years' work. Many persons at the close of the examinations in 1876, were of the opinion that in order to have graduates in 1877, it would be necessary to use "skimmed milk." Many of these, however, after witnessing the examinations of the classes of 1877, agree that "the graduates of this year are richer than last."

The attendance upon these examinations, both day and night, and the interest manifested by the masses in them, were quite equal to last year. The same may be said of our educational meetings which were held each evening while I was visiting schools. I held in the year including district alumni meetings and examinations,

FIFTY-TWO EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS

in the county—forty-two in churches, and ten in school-houses.

THE THIRD ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS

were held in the spring of 1878, and were no less interesting than those of previous years. Eighty-eight pupils completed the course, were examined, and graduated.

In order to show the interest felt in this cause by the people after testing the plan for three years, I make an extract from an editorial letter written by GEORGE W. ATKINSON, Esq., Editor of the Daily and Weekly *Standard*, of the city of Wheeling, after spending one week in this county, witnessing the examinations held at the close of the term, in a leading editorial, published in the *Standard* of March 4th, 1878, in speaking of the attendance upon these examinations, says: "Such crowds of people we have never seen assembled in the rural districts, even at barbecues, during political campaigns."

The fourth and last annual examinations held in March, 1879, were equally as well attended as those of former years. When this system was first introduced, and the first annual examinations were ended, some of my personal friends expressed the opinion that we should be unable to repeat them; that by the next year the novelty would be gone, and that we should neither have patrons nor pupils to attend them.

Experience, however, has proved that after four annual examinations, and three annual meetings of the alumni have been held and three annual catalogues have been published, the interest of the public in this system is undiminished.

I have observed with pleasure ever since the origin of this plan that

THE LEADING EDUCATORS OF WEST VIRGINIA HAVE HEARTILY ENDORSED THE GRADUATING SYSTEM.

I name a few prominent educators of West Virginia, who after witnessing the annual examinations and commencement exercises of our free schools have complimented the system.

Prof. W. R. WHITE, ex-State Superintendent of West Virginia.

Rev. J. R. THOMPSON, President of West-Virginia University.

Prof. H. L. COX, late Principal of Morgantown Graded School.

Prof. F. S. LYON, Vice-President of West-Virginia University.

Prof. F. H. CRAIG, Principal of Moundsville Graded School.

Prof. D. B. PURINGTON, of Preparatory Department of West-Virginia University.

ITS ADOPTION HAS BEEN RECOMMENDED BY THE PRESS THROUGHOUT THE STATE.

My limited space will allow me to refer only to a few of the leading journals.

The following references to the editorial columns of three newspapers published in the city of Wheeling, having each a daily and weekly issue, and wielding a greater influence than any other three papers in the State, show, in a clear light, the opinion of the several editors.

The *Wheeling Intelligencer*, in its issue of December 27th, 1876, contains a leading editorial entitled "A Great Step Forward in Education in West Virginia," in which the graduating system as introduced into the free schools of Monongalia County is carefully reviewed, and its adoption throughout the State is earnestly recommended.

The *Wheeling Register* in its issue of November 18th, 1877, contains an editorial from which I extract the following:

"The proof of the pudding is in the eating. The value of Mr. WADE's plan has borne the test of experience. It is a laborious plan and need not be attempted by an ignorant, careless, or lazy superintendent. While it is like all valuable pieces of machinery, very simple, it needs brains, tact, and enthusiasm to cause it to run. Where all these qualities are possessed, this little piece of school machinery works as quietly, smoothly, and effectively as a Corliss engine."

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ations and commencement exercises of our free schools, from which I make the following extract:

"We cannot recommend Mr. WADE's plan too highly. It is just the thing to bring our public schools up to the standard of usefulness and respectability which they were intended by the authors of the law to be. It is a common-sense plan, and wherever it has been introduced it works like a charm. * * * * After having witnessed the entire workings of the system inaugurated by Mr. WADE, we are now more than ever in favor of it, and sincerely hope that our State Superintendent will make it a part of his next report to the Legislature, asking its adoption."

The Parkersburg *State Journal* says:

"This system, if adopted throughout the State, would in a few years cause West Virginia to rival Massachusetts."

The West-Virginia (Weekly) *Journal of Education*, published at Morgantown, in Monongalia County, is the earnest advocate of this system. The editor, Rev. J. R. THOMPSON—the youngest University President on the continent, but one of the most progressive educators in the nation—has, in public and in private, from the platform and through the press, urged the universal adoption of the graduating system. As President THOMPSON has attended more of our annual examinations and seen more of the operations of this system than any man, except the county superintendent, his testimony is worthy of great weight. I make an extract from a leading editorial on the graduating system, published in his journal of December 4th, 1878:

"It has indeed produced in Monongalia County, and is destined to produce all over the State of West Virginia, an educational revival. It is safe to say that no subject so interests the people of Monongalia County to-day, as the education of their sons and daughters. They talk about that more than anything else. No subject presents such charms as that of education, and larger crowds can be gathered to witness the annual examinations in the several districts than can be called together by the most eloquent preacher or the most popular political orators. The writer of this article has accompanied Superintendent WADE twice through the county on the occasion of these examinations, and he has marvelled again and again at the deep and abiding interest of the people in the school work. They come early to the house in which the examination is being held, they come in all kinds of disagreeable weather, they come from three, four, or five, and sometimes ten miles. Their interest never flags through the entire day; they remain until eleven and sometimes twelve o'clock at night, and they go away as from half-finished feasts, with appetites keen as ever for mind food, affectionately and enthusiastically devoted to the school of the people. We are among those who believe that it is possible for this State to have a prosperous, honorable, influential future, but we are quite confident of the truth of the statement that this future is possible only by the general education of the people, and we are sure that no better plan has thus far been devised to secure this very desirable end than the introduction into the public school by efficient county superintendents, of this system of graduation. Let it be tried."

The fourth and last annual examinations held in March, 1879, were equally as well attended as those of former years. When this system was first introduced, and the first annual examinations were ended, some of my personal friends expressed the opinion that we should be unable to repeat them; that by the next year the novelty would be gone, and that we should neither have patrons nor pupils to attend them.

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I might call the testimony of a multitude of newspapers all over the State, but time will not permit. I cannot, however, close this part of my subject without acknowledging the indebtedness of the cause of education in Monongalia County to our county papers, the Morgantown *New Dominion*, and the *Post*.

I would say to educators everywhere that the public press, one of the "great powers," is almost always willing, and should be used by you, to promote the interests of popular education.

Since the introduction of the graduating system into the schools of Monongalia County, it has been adopted in several other counties of the State. All our county superintendents make annual reports to the State Superintendent of the condition of the schools of their several counties. I shall take from the printed report of the State Superintendent

THE OFFICIAL TESTIMONY OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS WHO HAVE TRIED THE
GRADUATING SYSTEM.

Superintendent W. M. WIRT, of Marshall County, in his report for the year ending August 31st, 1876, says:

"With the help of the teachers, I introduced Superintendent WADE's plan of holding district examinations and granting diplomas to those who could pass a creditable examination in the current common-school branches. This, I think, had a good effect, as many pupils studied with an object, and endeavored to acquire a more practical knowledge of what they were studying than before. Diplomas were granted to two pupils in Liberty, to two in Union, and to three in Clay Districts, and to seventeen in the Independent District, Moundsville, while more than one hundred entered the graduating class of the present year. I think the system a good one, and would recommend it to the Superintendents and teachers of other counties, as it has worked well so far as tried in this county."

In his report for the year ending Aug. 31st, 1878, having tested the system another year, he says:

"In the spring months I held examinations in the different districts, which were very interesting occasions, as the graduates delivered speeches in the evenings. In a few instances their commencement exercises would compare favorably with similar exercises in colleges and seminaries. There were seventy-six graduates during the year, most of whom showed a thorough knowledge of the common-school curriculum. There will be more than one hundred graduates in the incoming year. I make no argument in favor of this system, but will respectfully refer you to Mr. WADE's Catalogue of Monongalia-County Schools, in which he urges, at some length, its adoption throughout the State. I will simply say to Superintendents of other counties:—try it with a determination to make it a success, and you will soon be convinced of its adaptability to the work to be done."

Superintendent T. A. PARKS, of Tyler County in his report for the year ending Aug. 31st, 1878, says:

Much of this increased attendance, with the superior work done in the schools last winter, we attribute to the teachers' institutes that were held in the county, especially the one held in Middlebourne, in November 1877, conducted by the County Superintendent and Mr. A. L. WADE,

County Superintendent of Monongalia County, assisted by President THOMPSON, of the State University, and Mr. G. W. ATKINSON, editor of the *Wheeling Standard*. Many questions of vital importance to the Public Schools were discussed in the Institute, prominent among which was the graduating system as originated and introduced by Mr. WADE into the Free Schools of Monongalia County, and as adopted and practiced in other counties of the State. The teachers of the county voted unanimously to adopt it in Tyler County.

Superintendent JONATHAN M. SATTERFIELD, of Marion County, in his report for the year ending August 31st, 1878, says:

"Another great auxiliary in the work with us, as it is recognized by almost every one, is our system of graduation and examination for scholars, introduced during the year. Though the extra labor demanded of me to introduce this feature, and to carry on its operations during the term was very considerable, I feel on viewing the results, well satisfied with the project, and know that my labor has not been in vain. As I forward you a copy of our catalogue, reporting this work in full, for the year, I will not consume space in detailing particulars *here*, and will remark no further concerning it, save to express the earnest desire that all our county superintendents may introduce and give this system a trial."

I could bring additional testimony of like character, but we are told in a very "Old Book," that "In the mouth of two or three witnesses every word shall be established."

A resolution, an official copy of which was furnished me by the secretary, shows

THE ACTION OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF WEST VIRGINIA.

"At the State Teachers' Association held at Martinsburg, West Virginia, August 28th, 29th and 30th, 1877, a resolution was presented by Prof. J. BONAR, of Moundsville Graded School, and amended by Prof. J. McMURRAN, Principal of Shepherdstown Normal School, which amendment was adopted by a vote of the Association, and reads as follows:

"*Resolved*, That the system introduced by Superintendent A. L. WADE, into the free schools of Monongalia County, providing for grading schools, holding annual district examinations, and granting diplomas to pupils who complete the free-school branches, be recommended to county superintendents throughout West Virginia for their adoption."

In order to present the

OPINION OF STATE SUPERINTENDENT PENDLETON UPON THE GRADUATING SYSTEM

I will make an extract from his last annual report to the Governor of West Virginia. Under the head of "Graded Primary Instruction" the Superintendent says:

"All education should be conducted with method—a rational progress, towards a definite end, is the secret of success in every undertaking. But, in our Primary Schools, while we have a prescribed set of subjects and Text-Books, there is no prescribed order in which the subjects shall be studied, nor arrangement of the pupils in classes, nor designation of the

time to be given to them respectively. There ought to be a beginning—a regular order of progress, and end to the Primary course of instruction. This has been felt by some of our best County Superintendents, and Superintendent WANE, of Monongalia County, has succeeded in introducing a method in the schools of his county, that has worked with admirable success. But so long as it is left to each teacher to do as he lists, with respect to the organization and conduct of school work, we can have but little system or uniformity in it. I suggest that authority be given to prescribe a regular course of Primary instruction, to be generally followed in the schools, with provision for the examination and graduation of all pupils who satisfactorily complete it."

Finding that the graduating system met with universal favor in West Virginia I concluded a few months ago to send copies of the Third Annual Catalogue of the Free Schools of Monongalia County to some of the highest Officials, Instructors, and Educators connected with the educational work in the United States in order to obtain

THE OPINIONS OF THE BEST EDUCATORS OF THE NATION.

I have with me to-day responsive letters and editorials from which I shall present brief extracts.

Hon. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, late United-States Commissioner of Education at the Paris Exposition, in a letter dated Boston, February 28th, 1879, says:

"*Dear Sir* :—I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 22d, with the accompanying copy of your report as County Superintendent of Schools. I have read with interest your account of the 'graduating system,' and I cheerfully comply with your request to give you my opinion of it.

The essential features of the system, as I understand it, consist of three elements, namely:

1. The classification of the pupils according to their grade of advancement in all the required branches.
2. A final examination each year to ascertain what pupils have satisfactorily completed the prescribed course of instruction.
3. The granting of diplomas to such pupils as have completed the course.

To your system, so far as it embraces these features, I give my cordial approval. Wisely administered, it would produce, without doubt, very beneficial results. I have never before heard of such a system being thoroughly carried out in all its details in the rural districts of this country. In its application to city schools the plan is not novel. * * * But the system is liable to abuses which should be carefully looked after.

From your report I feel convinced that you are doing an admirable work, and I have no doubt that your county ought to be marked as a bright spot on the education map of the country."

"Very truly yours,

JOHN D. PHILBRICK."

"A. L. WADE, Esq., Sup't Schools,
"Monongalia County, W. Va."

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA.
Department of Public Instruction.

HARRISBURG, Feb. 22d, 1879.

ALEX. L. WADE, Esq.,
County Superintendent, Monongalia Co., W. Va.

My Dear Sir:—I have time only to glance at your report, but I have no doubt from what I have seen of it that your "graduating system" may be made to do a great amount of good in public schools. If you will send me a concise account of it and its workings, I will publish it in the *School Journal*. I shall not have room for a long article.

Yours truly,

J. P. WICKERSHAM."

I will now give an extract from a letter of Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, President of the National Educational Association. It is dated at Dayton, Ohio, April 8th, 1879. He says:

"I have read your report with much interest, and join most heartily with the distinguished educators you have named in commending your 'graduating system' for primary schools, as worthy the consideration of educators throughout the country. I make no question that the system will serve a very valuable purpose in stimulating youth to greater exertion in study, and at once prove an incentive to the acquisition of knowledge both effectual and healthy."

GEORGE P. BROWN, President of the Department of Elementary Schools of the National Educational Association, in a letter dated Toledo, Ohio, May 7th, 1879, says:

"I thank you for the copy of your report. It is one of the best I have ever seen."

Hon. JOHN EATON, United-States Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, in a letter dated Washington, March 4th, 1879, says:

"Your letter of the 19th inst. and the copy of your Third Annual Catalogue are received. I have not had time to examine the pamphlet, so that I can hardly give my views yet, as to the graded system devised by yourself. I shall read your pamphlet with much interest."

In a subsequent letter (March 14th,) Mr. EATON says:

"It is very unsafe to express an opinion upon such a matter without a personal investigation."

Barnes's Educational Monthly, February number, contains an editorial which so clearly presents and so heartily approves the graduating system that I present it in full, notwithstanding I have already referred to it. The editor says:

"The question has frequently been asked of late, What is meant by a common-school course? It has been nothing but a mixture of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a quantity of geography, history, and science in quantities to suit the taste; there has been no course in it. In a multitude of cases what a child studies depends upon the blind judgment of parents or the momentary convenience or caprice of teachers. The so-called common-school course is no course at all. We most earnestly

commend any superintendent or teacher who can suggest any way by which order can be obtained, and the confusion now existing avoided. Mr. A. L. WADE, County Superintendent, Monongalia County, W. Va., has done more in this direction than any other person of whom we have heard. In his work he has accomplished the following results, which we commend to all similar workers throughout the Union:

1. The primary branches are taken up as one course of study for graduation.

2. The time in which each advanced pupil agrees to complete a certain course is fixed.

3. Public examinations of graduating classes are held annually, and diplomas are granted to those who complete prescribed courses.

4. Alumni associations of those who have graduated are formed.

5. An annual catalogue containing the names of all pupils attending school in the county during the year is published. In this catalogue, the names of all pupils are placed in their appropriate classes, showing from year to year what advancement has been made.

In all this work there is needed careful and intelligent supervision. The plan is admirable, and if it should be universally adopted it would give our County Commissioners and Superintendents a definite work to do, and unify our common schools, so that we could point with some show of truth and reason to the Common-School System of the United States of America."

The *Teacher*, published in this city, one of the neatest and cheapest of the Monthlies, in the January number concludes a review of the Third Annual Catalogue of the Free Schools of Monongalia County, in these words:

"The graduating system as described in the pamphlet before us, is a grand step in the march of education. We hail with satisfaction an appliance of this kind coming as it does from a live teacher, and exhibiting results of practical experience in the school-room."

The *Monthly Normal Review*, July number, contains a leading editorial on the graduating system, from which I make the following extracts:

"It is simply the application to primary schools of a well-grounded principle employed in all higher schools. Every student who enters college, for example, has his course mapped out for him. He may do more, but there is a minimum of work which he must do. So here as soon as a child passes from the preparatory grade to his class, he knows how much work he has to do, and how much time he has for doing it. It insures also a variety of studies, and we do not believe Mr. WADE states it too strongly when he says, 'My opinion is that a pupil from fourteen to sixteen years of age, who has had some advantages in school, will do better in *each branch*, if he takes up the entire free-school course, than he will do if he takes up nothing beyond arithmetic.' It furnishes the pupil an incentive to work. He has publicly pledged himself to accomplish a certain thing, and has associated himself with others striving for the same end; and now it is no longer the teacher who urges him on, but his own self-pride, his emulative feelings, his love for the approval of friends, and added to these and equally potent with any of them the desire for the ap

proval and fear of the condemnation of public opinion at whose bar he is now judged. Our country schools certainly need some attention, and we know of no plan more promising of good than this. It has been tried in some places, and we would gladly see it adopted in more; for though objections may be found to it, nevertheless it is a step in the right direction, and it is certainly freer from faults than many other plans already in vogue. At the very least it merits a fair trial and a full discussion, and we hope it may have both these as soon as possible."

The *New-England Journal of Education*, of May 8th, 1879, published the article from *Barnes's Educational Monthly*, to which I have referred, and in a kindly manner makes this criticism. I give the first sentence and the last paragraph:

"Superintendent WADE, of Monongalia County, West Virginia, has adopted a graduating plan for primary schools, which seems to be producing a revolution in that section; but whether it is due to his enthusiasm as an educational worker, or to the merits of the system we at this distance of remove cannot decide. It has occurred to us that it may be possible for teachers to exalt the form at the expense of the substance, and that in looking too earnestly for the formation of system which shall embrace a multitude of schools and teachers, we are liable to lose that which is the thing of greatest value in education—the individuality of both teacher and pupil. We hope to examine the results of Mr. WADE's efforts more fully when we shall be better able to judge of their merits."

The *Educational Weekly*, Chicago, of March 28th, contains an editorial of more than two columns in which the system is carefully and critically reviewed. I extract two paragraphs which give the spirit of the article:

"There can be no question but that such a course will very materially quicken the interest of both pupils and parents in the public schools. The same personal ambition is appealed to in the children as that which inspires the academic or college student to apply himself diligently to his studies, and finally graduate from the course with a formal certificate of attainments. And this is also the testimony of Superintendent WADE after having well tried the plan.

This question is one of great importance in the administration of the public-school system, and the friends of that system should give it a fair consideration. While, therefore, the *Weekly* would approve and defend every such movement as that of Superintendent WADE, in West Virginia, if judiciously and wisely conducted, it would caution all who are devoted to such progressive steps to advance slowly and carefully guard against abuses which are apt to follow close upon the heels of all true progress."

The *American Journal of Education*, St. Louis, April number, contains an editorial which I present in full:

"We hope the article on Schools in West Virginia, published in our last issue, was very carefully read.

"We see in it many things to admire and to commend.

"As a means of interesting both the pupil and the parent, it proved to be eminently successful. The parents, too, were tax-payers, and it gave

the teachers an opportunity to demonstrate to the tax-payers the worth and the measure of their work. We should have more liberal *estimates* made for all our schools in this State, if the tax-payers knew what and how much our teachers are doing.

"Not knowing much about it, they are disposed to cut down the "estimates" for teachers' wages and other necessary things, to the lowest figure possible.

"For this, our teachers themselves are very much to blame. They do not take care that the tax-payers shall be kept well posted on what the schools are doing—on what improvements are being made.

"This graduating system, adopted and so successfully carried out by Mr. A. L. WADE of Monongalia County, West Virginia, would certainly work a much-needed reform in this direction.

"There is so much of real practical value in it, touching as it does this vital question of the *worth* and the work of our teachers, that we are disposed strongly to commend it to the attention of our friends all through the West and South."

But I must close this testimony, and conclude this argument. I have presented a system which is *new*, and have shown that its introduction into the Free Schools of Monongalia County, West Virginia, produced an educational revival of unusual interest, and that although four years have elapsed this interest is undiminished. I have shown that the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia recommends the adoption of this system throughout the State. I have proved by official reports of County Superintendents who have tested the system, that it carries with it the spirit of revival. I have shown that the public press of West Virginia favors its adoption. I have proved by the official report of the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in West Virginia that it is a plan that has worked with admirable success, and that he favors its adoption by law. I have shown by letters and editorials that some of the foremost thinkers and freshest writers connected with the educational work of the nation, favor the system.

I now leave the subject with the Association, believing that it will receive due consideration. Permit me to say in conclusion that we are engaged in a grand cause, the education and elevation of our race. To educate a being whom God made a *little* lower than the angels, and then crowned him with glory and honor, is a noble work, but we must not forget that *education embraces the culture of the whole man with all his faculties.*

In discussion, J. W. HARVEY, of Chester Co., Pa., said that he considered the subject of the utmost importance. A modification of present methods would have a tendency to keep pupils in school a greater length of time. It would also be a stimulus to both teachers and pupils.

W. A. BELL, of Indiana, said that the graded system in country schools was not a new thing in Indiana. It had been in operation in that State for the past six years, and in all the counties having efficient county superintendents had proved a success. In some of the best counties the

schools are not only graded, but at the close of the course an examination is held by the county superintendent and "*certificates*" are given to those who have successfully completed the course.

Mrs. REBECCA D. RICKOFF, of Ohio, read a paper on

THE FIRST SCHOOL DAYS.

At the opening of the fall term of our city schools, children, varying in age from four to seven years, come pouring into the lowest department until not only the seats, but often the edges of the platform and all other available places are overflowing with a jostling, uncomfortable, disconcerted crowd. In the confusion many children get into the wrong grades and must be exchanged. Some are found not to be of legal age, and must be sent home; some are too old for this grade and yet not sufficiently advanced for the next. These and similar things demand the immediate attention of the teacher; added to this are constant interruptions from the necessary visits of school officials and interviews with parents. It is under such conditions as these that the primary teacher has to begin her important work. If during the first week she succeed in organizing her school, in recording names, ages, and residences, in getting each pupil properly provided with slate, pencil, sponge, and other necessary materials, in having slates ruled, pencils sharpened, etc., she will have accomplished much, and her school, so far as the mere machinery of management is concerned, will be ready to begin work. But while the teacher is doing all this, there sit the little children in the close school for four, five—in some *wicked* cities even six—hours each day. The majority of these children have never before been inside of a school-room, and everything about them is new and strange. Whence have these children come? From homes whose influences vary as the number of families the children represent. How various, then, must be the impressions, produced upon them by these first days of school! The teacher, as she looks over the room, will observe that nearly every type of character, nearly every phase of disposition, may be studied in the faces before her. Here she will see a bold, defiant boy, a little Arab from the streets, who never heard a word of love—he is on the look out that no one gets the better of him; and beside him sits a timid girl, the pet of a household, who misses her pleasant home and wants to run away and hide her head in her mother's bosom. There is the bully with an air of bravado; there the sly puss; and yonder a fair young face full of expectation, dashed a little, it may be, by awe of the teacher, and chilled by a sense of loneliness, but the little one loves novelty, and is eager to push forward on the pathway of life. Here is a spoiled darling, pouting because she finds herself not, as at home, the centre of interest, but only one of a crowd; and near is the little girl who has been obliged "to help" ever since she could walk; the only happiness her childhood will ever know she will find in the school-room. Here is a little idealist; already he dreams of conquering the world he knows, be it to dig a deeper well, to build a higher wall, to sail the ocean, or scale

the clouds. He has not yet made acquaintance with the sad word *fail*. And by his side, with tearful eyes, sits the child so easily discouraged that he must be helped over all the rough places.

What can be done with such a number of children, so different both by nature and previous training and influences, and so differently affected by their surroundings? How is the teacher to weld these diverse elements into one harmonious whole? For before she can hope to control or teach them as a class, she must first accomplish this. These children know no songs, recitations, or exercises in common. They cannot read, write, nor print, and the first instruction to be given in any of these subjects to children, so dazed, and ignorant of school ways as these are, must be exceedingly difficult under favorable circumstances, but under the existing ones of constant interruption, and an entire ignorance on the part of the teacher of the children, is an impossibility. Some teachers say that all they can do during the first two or three days is to keep the children in their seats and *make* them be quiet. Quiet is better than disorder, certainly; but what a bitter alternative is this! Some teachers say "they are such little things, it would be cruel to make them mind," and so they coax and entertain them. This way is worse even than the other; for that teacher who, by entertaining her pupils too soon or too much, releases them from the restraint of strangeness before she has secured complete control over them, will soon find herself confronted by a mob of wilful children, boiling over with mischief. If, then, it be impossible to instruct the children, cruel to keep them still, and dangerous to entertain them, what shall the teacher do? The easiest solution to this problem would be pleasanter school-rooms, smaller schools, and more teachers, but the question is not what the circumstances should be, but what is best to be done under the circumstances that are.

It is generally taken for granted that our Normal Schools prepare for the emergencies of this time. To a very slight extent they do, but by no means does the amount of instruction given meet the demands of the circumstances. Such instruction as they give which bears practically upon the work of this period comes under the head of school management. But although school management is interwoven thread by thread with the work which is necessary to be done during the first six or eight weeks of the first school year, yet school management can never cover the whole ground. This work has never been analyzed, classified, and systematized into any practical form. And the manifold perplexities and annoyances of this time and the almost inextricable confusion of ideas resulting therefrom deter normal instructors from giving explicit directions for the work to be done. And so the teacher of this grade is left to engineer her way through the labyrinth of difficulties which surrounds her with only a gosamer to guide her. But God made the young women—God bless them!—to be teachers of the young children, and so we find in all good primary schools a great amount of instruction given which is never counted in as a part of the course of study. But unfortunately even teachers who are quick to see the need of this instruction and give it, do so in a very desultory manner and without appreciating the importance and value of that which they do.

Evidently the teacher needs first to dispel the feeling of strangeness and put the children at their ease, to make them feel that their teacher is their dear friend and helper, the one to take mother's place during school hours, and that their playmates are their companions who are to join with them in many pleasant occupations. But she needs to do more than this, she needs from the very beginning to accustom the school to act as a whole—as a whole to give keen attention and prompt obedience to all orders. These ends can be accomplished only by means of conversations, concert exercises, both physical and vocal, and story-telling, and training in school ways, all combined into one exercise. But to do this the teacher must find some common ground which she is sure is familiar to them all. The ordinary school routine will not do, for that is new to them all. Are there no happy home associations which may be brought into the school-room to make them forget that they are in a strange place? How is it with Mother Goose's rhymes? Are they not familiar to all, and have they not learned them under happy auspices? Even the little Arab had some one to sing them over his cradle. Mother Goose's rhymes are not to be utterly scorned. No observant mother scorns them. Though many of the songs are idle and silly, and some of them mere jargon, yet they, and kindred things in other languages have long been a power in the world, and this, I believe, is chiefly owing to their associations with mother, home, and early childhood.

CHARLES LAMB once went into a bookstore to purchase a volume of fairy tales for a friend's child. The bookseller handed him with considerable pride a book "Just out, full of new and interesting fairy stories." "No, no," answered LAMB, "not that; I want the old, *true* fairy stories, that I read when I was a child." And so, in spite of their faults, let the teacher win the hearts of her children by telling them the *true* childish jingles which first they heard at mother's knee.

The hand is the child's first plaything and first tool; for this reason it is one of the best as it is one of the most convenient objects for a first lesson in observation and expression. All their lives have the children had their hands, and yet that they have never observed them closely and have much to find out about them, can soon be made apparent by asking them a few questions. Every little hand in the school-room has been covered with mother's kisses. Can we find a more natural or stronger link between home and school? Concert exercises will delight and give courage to the children, and at the same time enable the teacher to handle the school as a unit. Training in school ways will give them confidence and ease in the school-room; stories and songs will develop their thought and feeling; familiar conversations will rob the new things of their strangeness; while the teacher, by means of comparisons with things at home, can gather around the new, the familiar associations of the old. Let her each day grow more and more precise and exacting in her training, until she has led the unconscious children step by step over the borderland into the very heart of the school country. By such means as these may we hope to weave the old life into the new, so that there will be no break, but the child will glide from the one to the other scarcely feeling the change.

The wise teacher, foreseeing the difficulties she will have to encounter, prepares for them beforehand. On the morning of the first day she makes a point of being in her school-room so early as to have time to make special preparations for the reception of the children. For her own sake she will need to come early in order that she may herself be sure of her surroundings. She will see that the room is properly ventilated, is of the right temperature; that the shades are neatly rolled up; that the table cover is neatly put on; that chalk, erasers, pointers, charts, etc., are in place and ready for use; that the blackboard is at least clean, though it would be better if it were adorned with a few pictures drawn by her own hand. Are these trifling matters? They are often neglected, and yet attention to such minutiae gives a moral force in favor of order and preparation for work before the time for work is come prevents a division of attention on the part both of teacher and pupils.

The *ideal* teacher would decorate the bare, cold walls of her school-room with garlands, would fill the staring windows with blossoming plants, and beautify her room with pictures, bouquets, and ornaments. She would make the first impression of the school-room so charming that it would be to the children always a bright remembrance.

The teacher, having received the children, cleared her room as far as possible of all pupils who do not belong to it and seated the rest, comes at last to the time when she must approach them and address them as a school. How many a young teacher has stood in doubt at such a moment! The children are quiet and watchful, wondering what is to happen next. The teacher does not stand upon the strange and awe-inspiring platform, but down near to the children. In a bright cheery way she addresses them. She needs to be careful what words she uses; they must be not only simple and childlike, but they must be common words. Generally the teacher's culture is superior to that of her pupils, and she will naturally use language to which they are not accustomed. She needs therefore to make an estimate of their average capacity and adapt her words to it; else she might almost as well speak to them in a foreign tongue.

In a few pleasant words the teacher greets the children, if her welcome be nothing more than simply "I am glad to see you here, children." What she says is not so important as the way in which she says it. Unaccustomed to the teacher's voice as the children are, they will perhaps fail to catch the full meaning of her first sentences, but the impression of her tone, her look, her manner, will remain with them.

The teacher now tells the children a story. Is story-telling out of place in the school-room? The story-tellers of the world have ever been its greatest teachers. She does not tell them a new story, but an old, old story, one likely to be familiar to all, no matter of what nationality they may be. "Cinderella"—that came over the mountains of Asia with the Aryan race—that was told thousands of years ago in old Egypt; "Red Riding Hood," "The Three Bears." Whatever the story is, it must be familiar and dramatic, and the teacher must tell it in a dramatic way. By gesture, look, and tone she must make the picture live before the children. By such a story told in such a way the teacher can win her

school in the very beginning. The children being warmed into interest and attention, the teacher now holds with them the

FIRST CONVERSATION.

"Well, children, you find school a very different place from home, don't you? Have any of you as large a room as this at home? Have you as large a room as this in your house?" Appealing here and there to a bright child whom she thinks will answer. "And so many children, too! Have any of your mothers as many children as are here? Can you tell me how many children your mother has? Don't you know? Do *you* know how many children your mother has?" calling upon another. "And your mother has how many? And I have—let me see—one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight,—O, so many children! I haven't time to count them all. When I was a little girl I used to know a story about an old woman who lived in a shoe. Let me see—how does that story go?" The children watch her eagerly as she repeats slowly, as if recalling:

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,
And—and——"

"Why, I used to know that story quite well when I was little like you. Can't any of you tell me what comes next?" In this way she induces one and another to help her, perhaps finds some ready to repeat the whole rhyme. She lets all who will say something—anything—if only she can get them to speak.

Some have spoken and the rest are in sympathy; it is an established fact that they can speak in the school-room in the presence of all the rest. A great point is gained. They have discovered, too, that there are other children there who know the same things which they know, and the teacher knows the same things, too; this is common ground; something to build an acquaintance upon.

The teacher repeats:—

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,
She had so many children
She didn't know what to do."

"I think I must be that old woman and you are the children, and this great big room is the shoe.

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,—"

"What a queer place to live in! Don't you think she must have been a very queer old woman? Don't you think it must have been a very big shoe? See, children!" Here the teacher turns to the blackboard and quickly draws the simple outline of a large shoe. How eagerly the children watch her, and how delighted they are at the result! She says:

"Here is the picture of the shoe: this is the heel and here is the toe, and this is the top of the shoe. And"—turning to the board and making a few more lines—"here is the old woman herself." The children laugh and the teacher laughs, and all enjoy it and feel better acquainted; but nothing boisterous is allowed.

The teacher quiets the school and continues:

“ ‘ And she had so many children
She didn't know what to do.’ ”

“ Shall I make the pictures of the children too ? ” Of course the answer is “ yes.” This the teacher agrees to do, but upon condition that the children shall be very quiet while she does it. And she insists upon this, thus giving them a training lesson in obedience and self-control. The teacher now draws the old woman's children crowding about her and climbing over the shoe. By means of a few lines and dots she produces such pictures as those very humorous ones we frequently see in *St. Nicholas* and other juvenile magazines. This picture, by its very simplicity and crudeness, gives a keen delight to the children. They have seen it grow under the teacher's hands; it is not beyond them and they appreciate the fun of it.

The teacher now endeavors to make the children talk about this picture, asking and answering questions and listening to all they have to say. Most likely their little tongues will be loosened by this time; but if they are still too shy, she helps them by making up a story about the little girl who has hold of the old woman's hand, about the boy who is climbing out of the top of the shoe; she wonders why that other little boy is hiding under the shoe, etc., etc.

Not a little part of the advantage of this exercise is the cultivation of the children's imaginations. And for this purpose, this simple picture drawn upon the blackboard is far superior to any finished picture which the teacher could bring into the school-room.

After the exhilaration of this exercise the children will need quieting. The teacher may tell them to be quiet, but they will not be because they cannot be. Already they have sat still much longer than they are accustomed to do. They now need some

PHYSICAL EXERCISE.

The teacher requests the children to rise; all do not get up; they have not understood her perhaps, or are afraid. She walks down among them, laying a caressing hand on the head of a timid one here, patting the cheek of a frightened one there, picking up a book or scarf that may have fallen, and carefully putting it in its place, all the time showing them that she wishes and is waiting for them all to stand up. “ I see a little boy here who has not stood up yet; and this little girl, isn't she going to stand up with the rest ? ” etc. When all are standing, she says:

“ All hold up your hands this way—high up, so that I can see them. Down ! ” The teacher suits the action to the word and the children instinctively imitate her.

“ All hold your hands out in front—this way. Down ! Hold up both hands, high up—higher. O, so high ! If we could reach high enough we might touch the top of the room. Look up and see how high it is. Stand on tip-toes and see if you can reach it.”

After this exercise the teacher requires the children to be quiet. It will be good discipline for them. But she must not be surprised if they are not very quiet, for their ideas and hers are widely different upon that

point. It is useless for her to exclaim "Be quiet. Do be quiet. Be quiet, I tell you!"

QUIET AS A SUNBEAM.

A teacher having charge of a new and rather turbulent school, had, after much effort, succeeded in securing the attention of her pupils, and felt sure she saw in their eager, earnest faces a desire to obey her, to win her approbation, and yet, when she told them to be quiet, or to do anything quietly, there seemed to be almost no attempt on their part to obey her. Why? She concluded that it must be they had no clear comprehension of what she meant by the word quiet. Suddenly she said to them: "Stop! children. I have something to show you. See! See this sunbeam on the floor here! Look at it. Listen to it. Does it make any noise? It shines and shines, but it makes no noise. It is quiet. It shines quietly. Now let me see if you can be as quiet as the sunbeam." Scarcely a breath was heard in the room. "Now let me see how quietly you can rise." The effect was wonderful.

When the opportunity offers, the teacher gives the children their

FIRST LESSON,

which is a training lesson in school ways. She begins with a story:

Once there was a little girl who came to my school named EMMA. EMMA had bright, merry eyes, and long, soft curls, and she used to wear a blue dress and nice clean aprons. She had such a happy, smiling mouth that you would just wish to kiss her. She was a good little girl, and when I told her how to sit in school she would—"

"Shall I show you how she used to sit in school?"

She walks to the platform followed by many curious eyes. She sits down in a chair and shows them; she lifts her head erect, throws back her shoulders, and places her feet near together. She performs these actions separately, slowly, and in a manner to impress the children with the importance of what she is doing.

"This is the way EMMA used to sit in school. You may all sit this way." A few of the children imitate her. Without reproving the others, she points these out with approval. "JOHNNY is sitting right." "That is the way, MARY." "FANNY, here, sits almost as well as EMMA used to sit." "That will do."

After a rest she says, "Now, children, let us try that again and see if you can all get it right this time." She repeats precisely the same actions, speaking in a gentle, cheerful way, but in a tone so firm and decided that it will strengthen the fluctuating little wills. As she makes the motions she says, "Heads up, shoulders back, feet together; ah, that is well done; almost all of you sit right this time. Look at CHARLIE, how straight he sits! See how ELLEN holds her head up; and WILLIE, I see, has put his feet nicely together." Perhaps the teacher ventures a third trial, but not more than that or she will weary the children.

"Now, I will show you something else that little EMMA used to do. Oh, how bright her face was when she did it! Watch closely now, and see if you can do it too." She slowly brings her hands together and clasps them, fingers interlaced, and holds them out on a level with her chin.

She holds them there a moment to give the children an opportunity to see what she has done, and then has them imitate her. Few of the children will get this right, but if only the majority try to do it much is gained. She repeats this once or twice and then says, "Now, children, lay your hands on your desks this way," and she places her clasped hands on the edge of the table. She now passes quickly down the aisles, so that those who are waiting may not become demoralized; smiles and nods approvingly to those who are sitting correctly, approaches those who have not obeyed, and gently places the little shoulders and hands in position, finding no fault, saying only, simply and kindly, "This is the way." When all are in position she stands before them and says, "How pretty it looks to see so many children sitting so orderly in school!"

"*'This is the way to sit in school.'* You may all say that together. Oh, but you did not all say it together. Now say it again with me: '*This is the way to sit in school.*'"

It is important that every time the children are trained in school ways the lesson be given in the same order and in the same manner, because it is only by constant repetition of the same thing that the perception in the child's mind will become a clear conception, an idea which he will be able to grasp and hold, and every such physical exercise should be accompanied by some training in language—the putting into words and into a complete sentence the experience gained through the exercise of the body.

It would be impossible to give, in such a paper as this, even a synopsis of the number and variety of the exercises which are necessary in the first school days. About the hand, the slate, the school-room, and the desk, there group a number of beautiful lessons which are not object-lessons, nor language lessons, nor games, nor occupations, and yet which are all of these and more. We might put it thus: With each object lesson there should be a story; with each story a conversation; with each conversation a physical exercise; with each physical exercise a training in school ways, and with each and all and through all a training in the use of language. Accompanying these exercises there should be, as soon as the school is organized, instruction in the usual branches of study. Not by any means because the conditions are favorable to such instruction, but because the children have come to school with the understanding that they are to learn to read and write, and they should not be disappointed, and neither should their parents. I am not disposed to dispute the statement that learning to read is the chief business of the first school year, but I do assert that it is not the chief business of the first school days. Even though the only end desired should be to give the children the best possible instruction in reading, writing, and numbers, yet can this end be best attained by giving chief attention in the beginning to other things.

If by this paper I have succeeded in drawing attention to the fact that a readjustment is needed in the kind of work required of teachers during the first school days, I shall be content. If by the lessons presented I have indicated the direction in which that reform is possible, let all the credit be given to those noble young women in whose school-rooms I have observed such lessons as these wrought out to beautiful perfection.

W. E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, heartily endorsed the paper. Said that there was much in it that was practical—that could be taken and applied to school work.

Mr. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., said that he liked the paper. It is practical. It answers the question *what to do*.

Mrs. BURRILL, of the Philadelphia Kindergarten, criticized the paper, in that it advocated the abandonment of the kindergarten idea in important respects. She defended the FROEBEL system, and claimed that it was always a success in the hands of those who understood it.

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., said that Mrs. RICKOFF had hit the nail on the head. Many claim more for FROEBEL than he ever claimed for himself. He was a kindergartner if the kindergarten will carry out the principles of the *garden*. The child needs *training*.

J. R. SYPHER, of Philadelphia, said all is good. When any one says *this is the way*, he is an "enthusiast." The most that can be consistently claimed in regard to methods at present is *a way*, *the way* has not yet been found. We must take all and have genius enough to *adapt* it and use it.

A paper prepared by WALTER SMITH, of Boston, Mass., was read by W. E. SHELDON, subject:

ART AND DRAWING IN EDUCATION.

At a meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, held at Lewiston, Maine, in 1872, I had the honor of reading a paper on the teaching of drawing in public schools. Two years previous, the legislature of Massachusetts had enacted that drawing should form a part of the public education of the State, and earnest efforts had just commenced to teach the subject in public schools.

The great inquiry on the part of teachers was for some *plan* whereby they could give intelligent instruction in the subject,—a method, whereby they might have before them some definite objects to be aimed at, with the stages of study leading up to the final results clearly indicated.

In the paper referred to, I briefly outlined the objects to be aimed at in teaching drawing in public schools, and indicated the general features of the study to be pursued in Primary, Grammar, and High Schools.

As the plan then briefly outlined has been pursued in Massachusetts as well as in other parts of the country for about seven years, and as it has been the subject of much educational discussion, I have thought the best response I could make to your kind invitation to read a paper before your honorable body, would be to recall the main points of the scheme indicated in the paper referred to, and briefly review the practical experience of the past seven years in Massachusetts, in endeavoring to carry them out, and also to consider what effect the study of drawing is destined to have on education and on practical life in America.

It may seem slightly unbecoming on my part thus to invite public discussion to a scheme of instruction with which I have been so closely

identified, but I have the less hesitation in inviting attention to the matter now, inasmuch as the features embodied in the scheme were in no sense original with me save in one particular, viz.: the teaching of industrial design to children, in the public day schools, and the arrangement of the whole course.—All the other features suggested were practical adaptations of the results of European experience in teaching the subject which had become familiar to me through many years teaching and much observation.

DRAWING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

In the plan referred to I began by outlining what should be the beginning of the instruction in Primary Schools. Starting with simple lines pupils were to be taught their names, character, method of drawing them with the free hand, and next to combine them to form the plane geometric figures. Next the names and shapes of the figures were to be learned, as well as their relation to each other. Next followed the application of these geometric forms in simple ornaments and diagram-representations of objects. The practice of drawing from memory of forms previously drawn as well as drawing from the teacher's oral dictation were also urged. The drawing in Primary Schools was all to be in two dimensions, the aim being to teach the simple elementary facts of form modified by their perspective appearance. I also expressed the hope that we should before long see the day when general teaching in Primary Schools should be largely given by drawing,—that object lessons, in which pupils would be required to draw some peculiarities of the object described, or give some illustration in which the use of the object might be defined, would find a recognition.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

In *these* schools pupils coming from the Primary Schools would be familiar with the shapes of the plane geometric forms, their names and definitions, and would be prepared to enter on a broader application of them:—

First, in design. In this feature they could then be taught the principles of symmetry, repetition, radiation, alternation, etc. In the upper classes pupils might have given them some geometric figures as a square, triangle, or circle, and some elements of form as leaf, bud, flower forms, and be required to fill the space with these elements in some arrangement of their own, *illustrating* their ideas of symmetry, repetition, etc. This practice would involve a careful study of natural forms. They should also have considerable practice in drawing from copies of good historical design for the purpose of developing skill of hand in drawing, and also for cultivating the taste.

Second, drawing of solid forms and objects. In the Primary classes, pupils were limited to the drawing of objects *geometrically*, that is representing the *facts* of the forms in two dimensions—length and breadth. In the Grammar Schools another stage of difficulty was proposed,—to represent objects as they *appear*, which would involve their being taught first the *facts* of the forms themselves and then the *modifications* these facts undergo when viewed by the eye. The nature of the exercises for this feature

would consist first of drawing the solid geometric forms, such as cone, cylinder, cube, etc., and then simple objects based on them in different positions.

Third, in Geometric drawing with instruments. This would give practice in the working of a number of problems of plane geometry with rules and compasses, which relate to the accurate construction of the geometric figures *previously* drawn *free-hand*, and which form the *basis* for all practical work in constructive industry and design.

By the introduction of these three features of (1) *design*, (2) *drawing from objects*, and (3) *geometrical drawing*, the instruction in the Grammar Schools would broaden greatly, and permit an arrangement of exercises adapted to the constantly-advancing powers of pupils until at the end of the Grammar course they should be able to draw with readiness and a fair degree of accuracy, an *outline* representation of *any* simple object they might see, placed in *any position*. They ought also to be familiar with the common problems of plane geometry, which have constant application in the industrial arts, and at the same time possess an understanding of the elementary principles which form the basis of good taste in industrial design.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

On reaching the High Schools, pupils having passed through the stages of study indicated for Primary and Grammar Schools would be prepared to make extended use of the knowledge gained in various directions. They would now be able to *draw* to the extent of their knowledge with as much readiness and facility as to *write*, and they would find constant opportunities to apply their skill in such studies as botany, anatomy, geology, and other sciences, as well as in the study of history, geography, etc.

The definite instruction in the *High-School* course should be a *further unfolding* of the features of design, object and geometrical drawing, begun in the Grammar course. The Geometrical feature should now be broadened to include problems in solid geometry, and the casting of shadows, thus enabling pupils to express with absolute accuracy any facts of form in any position, in which they may be conceived, thus preparing for practical work in the various constructive industrial occupations, such as building construction, machine drawing, architecture, etc.

In the feature of object drawing the instruction could also be greatly widened. Scientific Perspective should now be taken up, which is the science of representing objects as they *appear*, and in this connection it forms a fitting accompaniment to the feature of the geometric drawing of solid forms pursued in this course, which consists of representing objects as they *are*. So that we should have in these two features the science of the *facts* of form, and the science of their *appearance*, and so subtle are these two sciences of geometry and perspective, that a knowledge of them enables us to express with the utmost accuracy both the *fact* and the *appearance* of all forms whatsoever, that are capable of being represented.

In object drawing, next in order to perspective, the elements of *light and shade*, and *color* should be taken up, and practice in drawing from nature, so that in this feature of the High-School course there is a sound preparation for artistic work.

In the design feature there should also be a material advance in the character of the instruction. The introduction of color in the feature of object drawing permits the study of plant forms in their colors as well as their methods of growth, and as all good design is based upon a careful study of natural forms, pupils are now prepared to study nature for motives both in form and color for design. Practice should also be given in reproducing in color choice specimens of historic design, thus developing the taste of pupils, and as the outcome of the instruction in this feature they should be required to produce designs of their own, suitable for industrial purposes.

In the *upper* classes of the High-School course the instruction should be *largely individual* in character. Some pupils might wish to devote themselves to the mechanical features solely, as a preparation for technical schools, or for practical life, while others might wish to pursue the features of object drawing and design as a preparation for further artistic study. The instruction should be broad enough to admit of a choice on the part of pupils in these respects. Thus we should have as the outcome of the High-School course, and the aim of the scheme:—

First; the development of a fair degree of knowledge of the science of representing *facts of form* for all purposes of industrial and building construction;

Second; the development to an equal extent of the knowledge of the science of representing the facts of form as they appear to the eye, *modified by their position*.

Third; the cultivation of a good taste in Industrial Design, with a fair amount of practice in the composition of original designs for industrial purposes.

Such were the main features of the course of instruction in drawing for public schools adopted by the city of Boston and endorsed by the State Board of Education of Massachusetts seven years ago. In this scheme it will be observed that certain definite results were aimed at in each grade of schools, and that the whole course tended to the development of a broad practical knowledge of the subject as the outcome in the High Schools.

In view of the fact that this effort in Massachusetts was the first attempt ever made to teach the subject of drawing comprehensively, on a thoroughly-scientific and educational basis in *all grades of the public schools*, it is now eminently proper (indeed it is a good subject for educational discussion) to enquire as to the results produced by this experiment in Massachusetts, both in their relation to education and their bearing on *practical life*.

I have no doubt it will be readily conceded, that so comprehensive a plan would naturally require several years for its full development. In the first place, the scheme contemplated the teaching of the subject by the regular teachers, and it was necessary therefore, that they should receive instruction in the features to be taught, and at the same time receive some training in the manner of teaching them. Under these circumstances it was not to be expected that the *first* fruits of the effort would be any fair indication of the final results. Eight years however

have now elapsed since the effort began. The State has since founded a Normal Art School for the special training of teachers for teaching drawing, from which institution several hundred students have passed, capable of teaching the elementary features, and many have been employed in the public schools of the State.

As the result of their instruction the public schools of several cities have been enabled to work out many, if not all the different features of the course, so that we are now in possession of sufficient data, to be able to pass judgment upon the practical worth of the instruction thus far given, and at the same time to make some fresh observations in regard to the future bearing or influence of the study of drawing on education in America.

In regard to the results thus far obtained I think it can be truly said that they are such as may well be thought satisfactory to those who worked so earnestly for the introduction of drawing into education, and who, like Dr. PHILBRICK, were wise enough to insist that the instruction should be placed upon an *educational*, rather than an *artistic* basis. Experience has shown that with a proper method of classification and grading, the subject can be as readily and as well taught by the regular teachers as any other subject, in all classes below the advanced High-School classes, while its influence upon the other studies has been of the most beneficial kind. In the schools where the instruction has been the most thorough, where committees have exacted the strictest compliance with the State's requirements, the greatest interest has been shown, and from such schools there come no longer complaints from teachers that they cannot teach drawing understandingly, or that only specially-endowed pupils can learn to draw. The introduction of the feature of industrial design into the course, which in the beginning was regarded as extremely hazardous, if not a wholly impracticable undertaking, has indeed proved a remarkable success. By analyzing this feature and reducing it to its elements and presenting these in a logical, educational order, it has been found possible so to present this exercise to children as to awaken among them a degree of enthusiasm and delight, rarely equalled by any other study pursued in schools, and such a degree of skill and taste in this subject has been shown by pupils in the upper Grammar and High-School classes, that the work produced has excited the liveliest interest among leading European educators, who *see* in the practice of this feature in our public schools not only a practical means of stimulating and elevating our industrial creations, but at the same time a means which must before many years have a powerful influence in developing the æsthetic taste of the whole people.

In the feature of drawing from objects much valuable experience has been gained. The opinion has been so long and so persistently maintained by many teachers who have looked only at *imitative* results, that object-drawing should *begin* with, and should be constantly practiced from, *natural forms*, that it has been found difficult, save by actual experience, to show that skill and power in *this* particular *must* be based upon a positive knowledge of the *facts* of form in the first instance, and then an understanding of the *modifications* which these facts undergo when viewed by the eye in differ-

ent positions. Applying the general educational truism that progress in all studies should be from the simple to the complex it has been found possible to resolve this feature into distinct stages of growth, so as to be able to have pupils encounter but one stage of difficulty at a time. Experience has shown that at the start pupils have no well-developed power of intelligent or accurate seeing, and they must be taught therefore in the first place how to see, *what to see*, and how to *represent* what they see. In the face of these primal difficulties, the placing before them as exercises the drawing of natural forms, either as flat copies or from the objects themselves, as first practiced, has invariably proved a failure. In some special instances pupils have shown a certain degree of skill in mere imitative work, but there being no solid basis of knowledge behind it, the skill soon exhausts itself in feeble imitation. For purposes of sound information practice in drawing from objects should begin with the study of the *facts* of form embodied in the geometric solids and the *modification*, which these facts undergo when they appear to the eye. With proper explanations these facts and these appearances can be readily explained to pupils in the Grammar Schools, and experience demonstrates that by this method, and this alone can satisfactory results be reached in the feature of representative drawing in public schools.

In the feature of geometrical drawing there has not yet been any adequate development. The introduction of this feature has been opposed more strongly than either of the others, and there still exists in the minds of many teachers and on the part of the general public great misconception in regard to the nature of this feature as well as a want of appreciation of its fundamental importance in any practical scheme of art education.

Drawing in all its industrial applications, both in industrial construction and in industrial design, must be *exact* drawing. Without almost absolute accuracy in describing form, which can be secured by geometric drawing alone, it would be impossible to reach any high degree of industrial skill or taste. Geometrical drawing may be regarded as the sole language of industrial creations, and without a knowledge of it, modern industry could not exist. It is the distinguishing characteristic of this feature that it deals with the facts of form, as they *are*, and in the more advanced stages in the projection of solid forms, it calls for the exercise of the imagination of pupils in the most definite and practical manner, and to an extent not equalled by any other educational study whatever.

Much yet remains to be done before this feature of drawing can be regarded as fully developed in our schools. Many prejudices against it are yet to be overcome, and its great practical worth has still to be repeatedly insisted upon, and now that the claim of the feature of Design, and of object or representative drawing, are generally recognized, and in a measure provided for, I would respectfully urge upon educators and all interested in directing public attention to practical education, that they insist upon additional provisions for instruction in this feature. A knowledge of it is of prime importance as a wage-earning element to every skilful artisan, and art education in its bearing upon industry requires a knowledge of this feature primarily, both as a sure foundation for practical work, and as a basis for both the other features.

In summing up the results of this course of instruction in Massachusetts permit me to quote the testimony of the French Educational Commission on the works exhibited at the Centennial Exhibition three years ago, and I beg to state that this is the first expert criticism we have had on the subject. All the members of the Commission were educational experts, and the Chairman, M. BUISSON, was of the French Educational Commission at the Vienna Exhibition, and has had the fullest opportunity of becoming acquainted with the Art educational movements of Europe.

Extract from the Report of the French Commission in regard to the Exhibit of Drawing from Massachusetts.

"After having examined these numerous works of pupils of all grades, after WALTER SMITH's method, we do not hesitate to recognize its merits and its success. It is surely a remarkable fact to have been able in a few years to get ninety-five per cent of the school population to draw, if not with talent, at least in a passable manner. In saying this, we do not, in our admiration for this result, lose sight of the criticisms to which this method is subject. It has to be kept in mind that it is restricted principally to the study of geometrical elements and decorative drawing. Only the pupils of the high schools—that is, at most a third of the school population—arrive at artistic studies; the others remain too long with the copy and the outline, and commence too late with drawing from the object. (The advance is too slow, the results too uniform and incomplete. The prolonged employment of slates in the primary course, and of the ordinary pencils in the grammar school give to the hand a heaviness and a stiffness which we note in all the later studies). Finally, in retaining the good pupils too long on elementary exercises, the method risks, perhaps, the sacrificing of this minority of excellence, which in all countries is called upon to give direction to the industrial arts, to a less gifted majority. This, however, is always the case when it is intended to initiate into art, not a small number of chosen individuals, but the whole mass of scholars. And this has been and is yet the aim which is pursued in Massachusetts.

We must not forget that it is not proposed to multiply the number of artists, but to create able artisans; not to procure a few talents in harmony with the best well-to-do population, but to give to the thousands of future workmen the sum of knowledge and aptitude which they need to increase the value of their labor, to get a larger price for their work, and finally to enrich and perfect national industry.

"Viewed in this light, the problem has been marvellously well solved by Walter Smith.

"If his method leaves something to be desired, it is that he had to leave it in all haste to the abilities of improvised teachers; but, as soon as the Normal Art School shall have had time to bear fruit, we can predict to the industrial art of Massachusetts new increase and a brilliant future."

The criticisms in this French report are in the main sound. It is to be expected that French critics would look primarily to the æsthetic bearing of the instruction, but this commission were just enough to perceive and definitely to express, what is and what has been the first object in teaching drawing in Massachusetts, that is, for its industrial value.

In regard to the points complained of, most of them are objections which will be removed in time, as our teachers become more familiar with the subject, and school boards provide better facilities and additional materials. On the whole this French criticism is so intelligent and so thoroughly appreciative, that I beg you to listen to another paragraph from it.

"If all these works had been made larger; if they had been made with stump and crayon; if they presented a softer character; if the drawing from the object had been practiced more extensively; if the most simple drawing from living objects had from the first years of the grammar school added an element of composition; if the effects of light, shade, and color, too much neglected, had oftener enlivened and decorated the naked lines,—Massachusetts would have jumped at one bound to a superiority of artistic instruction in the primary grade which the old nations of the European world have not yet been able to attain. But, such as they are, the works of the primary and grammar schools exhibited in Philadelphia offer a very satisfactory whole: they bear witness to the excellence of the method, to the good dispositions of the scholars, as well as to the conscientious direction and intelligent care given to the instruction, with the view of developing the practice of practical, elementary drawing. If we bear in mind that these are the fruits of two years of trial, we must admit that never before have such remarkable results in so short a time been attained."

So much being assumed, it may not be out of place in this connection to refer to certain criticisms which have been made upon this course of instruction. It will be remembered that one of the first and most persistent objections brought forward was the want of an apparent freedom in the instruction, that the work required of the pupils in all stages, was too precise and mechanical in character, that it did not sufficiently appeal to natural forms, and hence did not adequately appeal to, nor tend to develop the imagination, or the taste for the beautiful in children. This criticism was based upon the idea that inasmuch as the elements of the course were founded upon geometry, in fact, as geometry was shown to be the very foundation of the whole plan, and as geometry is regarded, if I may use such a term, as the science of exactness, it was felt that the attempt to reduce the study of drawing in any of its phases to a scientific basis, would result not only in chilling or curtailing the art instincts of pupils, but would tend to develop a mechanical, false, and derogatory idea of art itself.

Criticisms of art educational methods and even of works of art, based upon the idea, that art science is hostile to art development or art power, are so common, and the development of even ordinary skill in drawing and design presupposes the possession of special artistic powers on the part of pupils, that I wish to call attention to what practical experience teaches in these respects. In view of the *peppery warfare* about methods of teaching drawing which breaks out on all sides whenever the subject comes up for discussion, I am led to ask seriously, *what is drawing*, and what do we understand as comprised in it?

Judging from what we frequently see and hear from very learned critics, we might say that drawing is, like writing, a mere matter of manipula-

tive skill with the fingers, which should be developed simply as a means of expression for the use of genius.

And this idea of drawing is a very common one, for we not unfrequently see teachers of drawing chosen, because like teachers of writing they know how to train pupils to do imitative work with their fingers. Drawing in this sense requires but the possession of ordinary nerves of feeling and of sight. Speaking broadly therefore, all children can be taught to draw as well as to write. This is a fact which may now be regarded as settled.

But is this the whole of drawing? As educators, are we content with such a definition? If so, the matter of teaching it might well be relegated to the teachers of writing.

Pardon me for dwelling at this point. So much misconception exists just here and the whole question is so involved in a mist of finger-practice, genius, nature, æsthetics, and science, that our first duty is to come to some general understanding as to what is meant, especially that our first duty is to come to some general understanding as to what is meant, especially in education, by Drawing. The name is a misnomer for what is taught under it. In one sense it is regarded as a language, in another as a science, in another as an art, and the difficulty is that all these features are apt to be mixed up together, and it not unfrequently happens that it is difficult to *distinguish* between what is taught as skill, as language, as science, or as art.

Now if drawing is to come into public education in the fundamental way proposed, it cannot be introduced in this "hurly-burly" mixed-up manner, it must be submitted to a process of educational disintegration, a process which will provide suitable exercises for developing the necessary skill of hand and eye, and a process which at the *same time* will present the language feature in such a manner as to appeal to the *understanding* of pupils and lead them to trace its application in science, in nature, and in art, and also be the means for expressing their *own* ideas in these directions. Drawing therefore becomes a very comprehensive, far-reaching study, and a proper course of instruction in it should teach pupils *what* to draw as well as *how* to draw, and thus the subject is at once lifted above the plane of mere writing, and to the highest significance in education.

If drawing *is* coming into education in this manner, as a language, with a science and an art back of it, these different features of language, science, and art must be presented in some definite and tangible manner, we must know what is taught as skill and language, we must know what is taught as science, we must know what is taught as art.

I do not think it will be disputed that instruction in drawing, so far as it relates to *skill*, *language*, and *science*, can be distinctly formulated and arranged. The doubt is about the *artistic* feature, and this, in the minds of many people, overshadows all the others.

Criticisms, such as I have referred to, come generally from the artistic side and are made without an acquaintance with the other features, or a knowledge of the requirements of general education, or even of art education itself.

I know it is a very common opinion that beauty which it is the aim of

art to express, is not amenable to rule. I am aware that beauty in its highest manifestation of form eludes exact scientific analysis; but there are forms which are positively ugly, while there are many which are more or less beautiful. The *highest* form of beauty can be appreciated only when we can distinguish the difference between it and *less* beautiful ones, and it would seem therefore that the best and surest way to secure an appreciation of beauty in its highest form would be to develop the power of analyzing it in its lower or simpler manifestation.

Again, art to be of any value, must be the expression of *truth* in regard to *form*. Truth of form requires for its expression a knowledge of both the language and the science of representation. Geometry is the foundation for both the language and the science. If we were to leave Geometry out of the study, we should at once take out the only tangible educational basis it has to rest upon. It is this element in the study which enables us to bring it within the province of education, and elevate the instruction above mere individual caprice, or rule of thumb.

A very superficial observation of what is taught in public schools shows us that only such subjects can be successfully taught to children as possess elements capable of disintegration and formulation and illustration. No subject of education with which I am acquainted is taught in its elementary features by guessing at them. This is so much of an educational truism, that I feel like begging pardon for stating it before an educational body like this; and yet simple and self-evident as is the proposition, we see on every hand claims made for the introduction of drawing as a fundamental element, accompanied with emphatic denunciation of all efforts to place the instruction upon a rational educational foundation.

The time has passed when it may be thought necessary to discuss drawing as a language. If the discussion of the subject for the last few years has done nothing more, it may be said to have accomplished this—secured a recognition for the study as a language, as a means of receiving and expressing thought hardly second to any other language we possess, and as it has been demonstrated that all children can learn to draw as readily as they can learn to write, the real educational problem is:—*What shall they be taught to draw; how shall they apply this language?* This it seems to me is the fundamental question to be decided, and in looking at the results now coming up from the public schools of Massachusetts and from cities in various parts of the country, it is worth while for us as educators to go back of the pleasing lines which represent certain degrees of mere individual skill and taste, and note the nature of the work to which this language is being applied. In applying our language of drawing in industry and in art, we have *two distinct matters* to deal with. We have *facts of form*, and the *modification* which those facts undergo as they appear to the eye. Sound instruction in drawing should educate to a knowledge of the facts as they are, and also to a knowledge of the laws which govern their appearance.

I cannot stop to point out how completely geometry underlies all forms, both natural and industrial. Geometry is the key to all beauty of form whatsoever. But I may be permitted to say that we can never perceive the full beauty of natural forms until we are able to perceive the beauty

of geometric forms. In art, geometry is the known, nature is the unknown. We can intelligently study the latter only through a knowledge of the former. It is upon a full recognition of Drawing as a language, with geometry as the basis of its applications in science and art, that the scheme of instruction in Massachusetts is based.

Speaking from a practical experience of many years in teaching all phases of the subject, and with a full understanding of what European experience for the past fifty years has to show in regard to methods of instruction, I am prepared to maintain that only on the general plan of disintegrating the subject and reducing each feature to its elements, as has been done in Massachusetts, can a sound basis for art education be laid in common schools.

To sum up the whole question I should say that the object of teaching drawing is

First, Utility—its application in industry:

Next, Culture—its application in Art.

The first requires a thorough knowledge of the *facts* of form—the second an equally-thorough knowledge of the science of the facts and the laws of their appearance.

In discussing this subject before such an Association, I am loath to confine the presentation to the merely practical, utilitarian considerations involved. The great tendency at the present time is to make our education too material or utilitarian in character, and I should prefer to dwell upon the higher educational, æsthetic, and political considerations which I believe are to flow from this art educational movement which has set in so strongly in America.

I do not think any of us fully realize as yet what an influence it is destined to extend in these directions. Time however does not permit of such discussion, but I cannot close without urging, even against the charge of tiresome repetition, the duty, which is laid upon educators, of insisting upon the necessity of maintaining the *scientific* features of drawing in public education on account of their industrial bearing.

I have said that without this knowledge there could be no industrial development, without a knowledge of drawing as applied in industry modern civilization could not be. No intelligent observer can fail to note the increasing growth of industrial occupations, and the increasing number of people pursuing these occupations. Success in these occupations is coming to depend more and more on a knowledge of the science which underlies the industrial arts. Education, to be practical, must absorb drawing as applied to industry as *one* of its main features, and when this has been done, and *workingmen* can see that as the *outcome* of your system of public education pupils are taught the language of industry as well as the language of trade, commerce, and the professions, they will come to look upon the public schools as the bulwark of their salvation.

As for Art, the culminating expression of a nation's civilization, we may safely leave it to be the outcome of an education which trains to *truth*, *imagination*, and complete means of *expression*. An art which cannot absorb these elements as the basis for its creations, an art which finds science a hindrance to its development is an art which cannot stand.

We have only to remember that MICHAEL ANGELO and LEONARDO DA VINCI were both among the most scientific men of their age, whilst they were also the greatest artists, to see that art and science are closely related and never antagonistic.

From weak and unreasoning people, whether in religion or in art, we hear Science and scientific investigation treated as an iconoclastic monster which is to destroy their creed or their craft; but men with calmer nerves regard Science as a Divine handmaid who will banish superstition and mystery, and substitute for them truth and knowledge.

The art which we should strive after in education is that which goes hand in hand with science, capable of being understood and appreciated by all intelligent people, and it is this phase of the subject which we as educators have to naturalize in this country.

Mr. MONTGOMERY, of Pennsylvania, told of excellent results in drawing in Millersville. Ample time can be *saved* and not affect the study in the other branches injuriously.

Mr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Boston, Mass., Commissioner of Education to the Paris Exposition, gave the results of two experiments now in progress in Paris regarding technical education. In one of them, the speaker thought, the chief end of the system was rendered impossible on account of the physical weakness of the boys. A lad of sufficient strength could not be found in the blacksmith shop to wield the hammer. It was the same way among the embryo carpenters—they could not push the plane. In the machine shop, one would work the treadle and another hold the tools. That was the result of one experiment. In the other the boys were larger and stronger, and the system the same as that which, in Massachusetts some seven years ago, was called “the shop in the school.” It was a school of applied technical industry. The pupils were taught that which would be of practical immediate value to them in after life; and, although a better judgment could be given after considering more varied evidence, still the results were gratifying.

The nominating committee reported the following officers who were unanimously elected.

For President, Hon. JAS. H. SMART, of Indiana.

For Vice-President, Miss SUSAN E. BLOW, of Missouri.

For Secretary, Miss LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Pennsylvania.

The persons who engaged in discussions were requested to furnish the secretary with a synopsis of their remarks, but many of them failed to do so, hence the meagre report of what they said.

GEO. P. BROWN, *President*.

W. A. BELL, *Secretary*.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department of Industrial Education of the eighteenth meeting of the National Educational Association met on Tuesday, July 29, at 3 P. M., in the gymnasium of the Normal School, and organized for business.

In the absence of the chairman J. D. RUNKLE, of Boston, Mass., Prof. L. S. THOMPSON, of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind., vice-president, presided.

On motion of ALEX. HOGG, Professor of Mathematics in the Agricultural College, Texas, H. B. WHITTINGTON, Principal of public school in the twenty-sixth ward, Philadelphia, was elected secretary.

The inaugural address was then delivered by the chairman, L. S. THOMPSON,—subject:

EDUCATED LABOR.

The subject of Practical or Industrial Education under several different titles has been thrusting itself into public notice and the notice of teachers' conventions for several years. Those who attended our National Association two years ago at Louisville, Ky., will remember that the great burden of many of the addresses and discussions was the relation of Education to the working classes; I mean those who work with their hands.

Because those who work with their hands and bodies are more numerous than all others put together, and because they are indispensable to the very existence of the human race, and because those who do not need to perform manual labor are generally able to procure such education as they wish outside of the public schools, it is claimed, and justly, we think, that the education given in the people's schools, or as they are sometimes called, "the people's colleges," supported by the people, should be adapted to the wants of labor. We think it one of the favorable signs of the times that in the distribution of the good things of this world the common people are not to be slighted in the matter of education.

In the earlier ages of the world's history, whatever has been considered valuable, such as wealth, power, religion, and learning, has been concentrated in the hands of the few. For thousands of years, the many have been taught that they were created to be ruled by a few favored individuals who were born with the God-given right to govern. For ages the world was taught by the Priesthood that religion was not to be studied

and understood by the masses, but that they, the priests, should interpret and dispense it as seemed good to them. From the beginning of the world there has been an aristocracy of learning who have claimed that education is a dangerous thing in the minds of the common people. In some parts of the earth, at least, these aristocracies of wealth, religion, and learning have been giving way to the true theory; that every man is entitled to the right of following his own enlightened conscience in religion, that he has the right to say in some manner who shall rule over him, that he has the right to receive such compensation for his labor as he may agree to take, and that he has the right to learn any thing in this universe that God has given him the capacity to learn.

Theoretically, in our own country at least, we are said to be free from these ancient tyrannies. Practically, however, we are still somewhat in the toils of former customs and teachings. There is still one kind of freedom at least that we do not fully understand,—the freedom that comes from the highest intelligence. By the diffusion of knowledge, as we find it in our time, the common people are beginning to understand that a knowledge of religion is not the peculiar property of the Priesthood, that authority to rule is not the birthright of a king, and that learning does not belong exclusively to those who are born geniuses. If the masses of the people desire still further freedom from the domineering power of these various aristocracies they must educate both generally and particularly.

In the preceding remarks we have not meant to arraign the course of the world's history. It has no doubt been according to the law of the "survival of the fittest." If men do not know how to rule themselves they should be governed by some one of more intelligence and wisdom than they possess. If men are too weak-minded and ignorant to study and understand religion, it may be better that the Priests should rule over their consciences. If mankind will not educate themselves in a general way, it is inevitable that they will be guided by those who are better educated. Still further, if we choose to be ignorant of the principles of good government, if we are too indolent to think for ourselves what is right or wrong, if we still cry out against learning and education, we ought not to complain if the aristocracies of Caste, the Priesthood, and Culture seize the reigns of power we have invited them to take.

In the education of the people experience proves that we may depend on the opposition of these classes. We have been told that education and labor are incompatible. That if you educate a boy he wont work. That if you educate a girl she will play the lady. We are also told that these persons not only *wont* work, but that schooling spoils the child of labor; that it really incapacitates him for labor. If this idea were only proclaimed by the avowed enemies of education, but little harm could come of it, but we find frequently the laborer himself joining in the cry for his own destruction. He complains of monopolies that take advantage of his poverty and ignorance, and yet frequently dooms his own children to a life of the same kind.

If it is true that learning unfits a boy or girl for manual labor, why is it that ignorance and idleness are so often found together, while education

and the prosperity that comes from industry are found in company? Why are not ignorant tribes of Indians the most active, industrious, and prosperous of earth's inhabitants? Why are not the Germans a nation of idlers instead of one of the most industrious peoples of the world? But, independent of facts to the contrary, why should learning unfit a child to labor? Does the laborer need only bodily strength? Does he not need the perception to see what is to be done and how to do it? Has he no need of reason? Has he no need of the attention and perseverance that come from overcoming his tasks in the school-room? Dropping the interrogative form we may say positively that education *requires* industry, and it cannot be obtained by idleness. It increases our desires, and our desires are the sources of our activity. It is the rule everywhere that the deepest ignorance is the most likely to be satisfied with rags and dirt, and these are the result of idleness. The educated man in the great majority of cases, desires a home of refinement, and hence he is incited to labor that he may obtain it. In short we are indebted to education and the diffusion of intelligence and virtue for whatever of material prosperity we enjoy. Take away all learning and wealth goes with it. Remove all the inhabitants of a wealthy city and fill their places with Digger Indians, and the land on which it is built will be worth about \$1.25 per acre.

Labor is not only the child of education, but is dependent on it for its skill and productiveness. Education is now more necessary to the laborer than ever before, because the kind of labor required demands skill and knowledge rather than brute force which is more and more supplied by steam and other forces of nature.

Laborers need to be educated because of the competition that everywhere surrounds and consumes them. The time has been if a man were as skilful and intelligent as his immediate neighbor, he had but little to fear. It is not so in our day. Every man must now compete more or less with the whole world. The multiplication of telegraphs, steamships, and railroads has brought the world's skill to the doors of every man. No country is far from us now. In five minutes we may send an order for goods to France, and in two weeks' time display the goods upon our counters. The farmer in the United States must now compete with the farmer in Russia, for every bushel of wheat raised in that country affects the price of wheat in this country. A wagon-maker may be the best in his town or county, but still he is not safe. He must be the best in his State, the best in his country, yea, the best in the world, before he is free from this consuming competition. Whatever of success ignorance and stupidity may have had in the past, let no father suppose that *his* son or daughter in the future can compete with the combined training and talent of the world, without the most careful attention to those studies that have a bearing upon the intended occupation or profession.

We have only to cast our eyes about us to behold some very striking effects of this competition between ignorance and intelligence. For a few years past our country has been overrun with paupers, idlers, and tramps, who seem to have nothing to do, and apparently can get nothing to do. Are they educated or skilled workmen who are obliged to live this kind

of a life? Occasionally an efficient laborer, through sickness, misfortune, or downright dissipation, may be found in this unfortunate class, but you know that the great mass of these idlers and beggars have no skill of hand nor intelligence of mind to bring into market. They cannot be trusted to do anything but the simplest and most unskilled of all labor. So ignorant and inefficient in all useful employments are they, that if they should honestly apply themselves they could scarcely earn their food and clothes at the beginning of their reformation.

In depressing times, when competition in some trades is very great, a practical education if it is as broad as it should be, will enable its possessor to turn his hand to another trade. The division of labor, which is a leading idea of our present civilization, in connection with the invention of labor-saving machinery, while enabling the race to make unbounded strides towards human perfection, is at the same time crushing out the lives of millions of the ignorant and unskilful. One of our difficulties now is, that workmen do not learn principles and practices that might apply to many vocations. They do not even learn the whole of one trade. One man learns to make the head of a pin and is therewith content. Another learns to make the point of a pin. One man learns to cut out a shoe, another to drive the pegs or sew it, and each one learns his little mite in such a way that he is like a machine, constructed in such a manner as to perform but a single operation. If you attempt to make the machine do something else you destroy it. If the maker of pin-heads cannot find employment at his trade he is financially ruined, and instead of attempting to do some other kind of work, he feels justified in turning tramp or calling upon the public for assistance. In order that the pin-maker or shoe-cutter may turn from one employment to another when some machine is invented that performs his little part better and cheaper than he could do it, he must have mind culture as well as hand culture, general education as well as particular education.

We are told that in order to make manual labor more sought by the young, we should hold up to their view the dignity of labor. But in what does the dignity of labor consist? All brain labor is not dignified, nor is all manual labor dignified. The dignity of manual labor depends on the motive—on the amount of thought, intelligence, and skill connected with its performance. The man who digs up his field with a stick instead of a spade, or with a spade, instead of a plow, when he can have his choice of implements, does not demonstrate the dignity of labor. The man who drags his firewood from the forest, on the ground at the end of a rope, when a wagon and horses may be used, does not dignify labor. The way to dignify labor is to show intelligence and skill by taking every possible advantage of the laws of nature and science. If you would make work reputable elevate the workman. But this cannot be done without education.

One man in his ignorance knows of no way of removing a large stone from his pathway, except by calling in several of his distant neighbors it may be, to assist him by main strength to roll it to one side. Another man who has knowledge performs the same task alone in one-tenth of the time by means of a simple lever. Which one exemplifies the *dignity* of

labor? If the dignity of labor consists in putting forth mere muscular strength, in striking a hard blow, the work of a donkey is as dignified as that of a man, and the work of a mule is much more so. Let the young be taught that there is a true dignity of labor—that which seizes every suggestion of science, and uses it so as to *economize* labor.

The manual-laboring classes sometimes justly complain that they are oppressed by unjust legislation, that their rights are not properly regarded by our law-makers, and that those who are more intelligent than they are take advantage of their ignorance. What is the remedy? Laborers must become law-makers also. How shall they do it? Only by education. If laborers, whether agricultural or mechanical, would compete with other classes of society for the honors and emoluments of the world, they must be educated. Let them educate, and “the sceptre and crown of civil service will return to the plow and pruning hook.” “It is by their neglect of learning the farmer and mechanic have lost the power they had in the days of CINCINNATUS and WASHINGTON. If a man would be great he must know. If he would rule, he must understand the thoughts and ways of men. There is but one alternative in this matter. The farmer or mechanic may study and prosper, and rule the world, or he may repudiate education, denounce agricultural schools, and remain the serf and burden-bearer of the nation.”

We believe every workman of whatever kind should have an Industrial Education, that is a particular education—one that applies directly to the trade he would follow. But we believe even more in a general education for the laborer, such as is furnished by most of our High Schools. The striking advantage of a general education over that for a special trade, when only one is possible, is shown by contrasting the working mechanics of this country with those of European countries. Until a few years ago the European laborer only had the advantage of the Trade or Industrial Schools. As there were no free or public schools, anything like general culture was not for him. In this country, until within a few years, we had no technical or industrial schools, but our laborers, especially in New England, have had the advantage of the public or common schools which only give general instruction. The activity of mind shown by our workmen is far beyond that of other countries. No other country has produced such ingenious inventions nor so many of them. New England, where general education is perhaps more diffused than in any other portion of the world of like extent, and where technical education has as yet done but little for the laborer, has produced by far the most labor-saving inventions of any people in the world, and the laboring people of this part of our country perhaps are better supplied with comfortable homes than any other people of the same class.

The laborer needs to be a strong man mentally and morally as well as physically. The strong man is the well-balanced man. The well-balanced man must be educated in every direction. It is said that no rope, chain, or piece of timber is stronger than its weakest part. Not even the “Wonderful one-Hoss Shay” could have run “a hundred years to a day” if its parts had not been equally strong.

The problem then that seems to be before the educators of to-day is

How some system of Industrial Education can be incorporated with our excellent public-school system so that general culture and hand culture may be carried along together harmoniously. If this can be done we believe the laborer of the United States will lead the world in ingenuity and handicraft. How this may be done we leave to be considered by the papers and discussions in this Department which are soon to follow.

This was followed by a paper entitled, "The Beginning of Industrial Instruction," by the Hon. M. A. Newell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baltimore, Md.

THE BEGINNING OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Fifty odd years ago, in one of the leading cities of the United States, about this time of the year, and about this hour of the day, a teacher might be heard calling at the top of his voice, "Sand-class, come up!" The story was told me by one who had been a member of the class. His father was the teacher. It was a long, low, dimly-lighted room; there were some two or three hundred pupils; a small number of slab desks, and a large number of backless benches constituted the furniture; as for apparatus there was a shallow trough, four feet square, filled with sand slightly moistened and nicely levelled off; no maps, no charts, no blackboards, no writing materials, except such as some of the bigger boys carried in their trousers' pockets; one solitary teacher aided by a hickory wand almost as long as himself took care that "order reigned in Warsaw," while a dozen of lads called monitors, somewhat older than the average of their school-fellows, each standing in the centre of a group of fifteen or twenty other lads distributed formal instruction, open rebukes, and secret cuffs, with impartial vigor, under the general orders of the Commander-in-chief. And what was the sand-class? Why, slates being rare and costly and blackboards being unknown or undiscovered, the smooth face of the moistened sand in the shallow trough formed an excellent surface whereon to trace the letters of the alphabet or the elements of any other branch of primary instruction which needed graphic illustration.

This was the only free school in the city, if indeed it could strictly be called free, when the pupils were expected to pay for their instruction at the rate of a penny a week each. And this was the beginning of a great public-school system which to-day, in the same city, numbers its pupils by scores of thousands, and embraces within its scope every grade from the lowest primary to the gates of the University, and the entire range of knowledge from the A B C's to the literature of Greece and Rome, as well as France and Germany.

Why do I recall these things? Not simply to remind you that the public-school system of to-day, as it exists in cities and other centres of comparatively dense population, has its root and origin in the old and almost forgotten Lancasterian school; but rather that you might perceive that this magnificent system of universal intellectual education of which we are so justly proud, had within the memory of men yet living an origin as obscure, a beginning as insignificant, a prospect as discouraging,

a future apparently as uncertain, as the project of industrial education seems to have in the eyes of the less enthusiastic of its advocates. The two systems being not antagonistic but complementary, dealing with the same persons, founded on the same principles, aiming at the same end, supported by the same arguments, opposed by the same sophistries, advanced or retarded by the same social forces, we shall be justified in hoping that like beginnings will be followed by like progress, and end in like development.

It is to this parallelism that I desire more particularly to direct the attention of the Department.

Our common-school system—and I mean more particularly our city school system—was not built up after a preconceived plan and model. It *grew* as a strange plant might grow from strange seed, and men watched its development keenly and curiously. They could have stopped its growth at any moment. They could have torn it up by the roots; but allowing the seed to remain in the ground, they had but little to do in the way of directing or controlling its growth. Some little digging and watering, some little weeding, some little pruning and trimming there must have been of course; but on the whole the plant *grew* in virtue of its own vital force, under the pressure of necessity, under the stimulus of encouragement, under the storms of opposition. From being a mere root in a dry ground it grew into a beautiful and shapely tree. Men wondered when they saw it. This was not what they expected; hardly what they wanted; but there it was and they must make the best of it. It had taken deep root. It had spread wide its sheltering arms. Millions rested happy beneath its shade. A wonderful tree. Not at all like what the planters looked for, but too big and too useful now to be meddled with, except by cutting off, now and then, a useless branch or a decaying limb. Candor compels us to acknowledge that had the planters known beforehand the gigantic proportions to which the Lancasterian infant was to grow under their nursing, they would have felt tempted to strangle the babe in its cradle. Had there been a prophet to warn them that the three R's would blossom into a perfect encyclopædia of Literature and Science; that the one mis-shapen, ill-lighted room would expand into scores of palatial structures; that the primitive log-desks and slab-seats would burgeon into luxuries in ash and walnut fashioned by the deftest of cabinet-makers, after artistic designs which met every requirement of health and comfort and beauty; that the sand-trough, as though rubbed by ALADDIN's lamp, should swell into blackboards and brighten into maps; that the hickory rod itself should bud like that of AARON and bring forth fruit,—globes and telescopes and microscopes and all the apparatus of physical science; and—most wonderful of all that the poor penny a week should be so invested as to yield millions of dollars a year,—the mere announcement of the prophecy would have been sufficient to prevent its fulfilment.

So now at the beginning of this new project of industrial, or, as I should prefer to call it, of manual education, if we are asked to exhibit our drawings and specifications, to put down on paper, by rule and scale, the length and breadth and height of the structure we propose to raise,

to calculate the cost, and to devise the means to raise the money for its erection, we must reply we cannot if we would; we would not if we could.

What then devolves upon us, that we may make a beginning of industrial education possible?

We must prepare the soil, and we must sow the seed. The soil is public sentiment. It is part of the price we pay for liberty that nothing can grow among us unless it is supported by the life-giving and life-sustaining power of public opinion. Looking to the history of common-school education we can recognize three distinct steps in the march of public opinion, and we may expect to make the very same steps on our way to a universal system of manual education.

1st, The recognition of the necessity of universal elementary education. Not the utility, merely, nor the advantage, nor the propriety, but the absolute necessity of educating the intellect of those who are to be the rulers of the republic.

2nd, The conviction that private and individual efforts are totally inadequate to the work of universal education.

3rd, The acknowledgement that the public money may rightfully be used for this purpose; and that under certain circumstances it becomes a duty so to use it.

Industrial education cannot have a beginning until the same propositions are admitted with reference to it.

The education of the hand must be recognized to be just as necessary as the education of the head.

When this is once accepted, the other propositions—the inadequacy of individual efforts and the right and duty of the people in their collective capacity to do what the individual has failed to do will soon become apparent. It does not come within the scope of this paper to argue any of these points in detail. My purpose is principally to indicate the parallelism that may be traced between intellectual education as it began to exist for the masses half a century ago, and manual education which, except in the minds of a few thinking men, can hardly be said to have as yet had a beginning; and from this analogy to derive instruction and encouragement.

The urgent necessity of manual education has not yet been fully admitted; and yet every valid argument in favor of educating the head at the public expense, may be urged with equal force in behalf of the education of the hand. Is it necessary for every free citizen to know how to vote? It is equally necessary for him to know how to earn his living. Is ignorance dangerous to the commonwealth? Equally dangerous is idleness. Does the education of the head prepare a man for the better discharge of his social duties? So does the education of the hand. Is learning the ally of morality and virtue? So is manual labor. Does learning give a man a feeling of independence and self-respect? So does industry. Does learning tend to keep a youth from low company and bad habits? So does industry. Is intellectual training necessary for the full development of personal character? So is physical training. Must our reason be cultivated because it is one of God's best gifts to man, bestowed

on us for this very purpose? The argument applies equally to our bodily powers. Is the *mens sana* a worthy object of the philosopher? It is useless unless placed in *corpore sano*. Are individual efforts inadequate to the support of universal intellectual education? They are equally inadequate to the support of universal industrial education.

In like manner every objection which has been made against manual education has already been urged against intellectual education, and has been weighed in the balances and found wanting.

"It is not the duty of the State; it is the prerogative of the parent; it is impracticable; it is too expensive; it is wrong to take one man's money to educate another man's child; it is communistic in theory; it will lead to other and more objectionable communistic doctrines and practices." All this has been said of intellectual education and has been disproved by the logic of events. The same has been said, or may be said in opposition to manual education and can only be effectually disproved by the same logic.

Arguments are worthless when they are opposed by facts. The logic of HERBERT SPENCER is shivered like a broken lance against the facts of PHILBRICK and HARRIS. In spite of every reason why there cannot be and should not be an effective and universal public-school system, such systems exist. It will be the same with this new enterprise of industrial education. Only give it a beginning. Let it once begin to exist, even on the smallest scale, as an established fact, and all objections will be swept away by the resistless current of events.

It is hard to say when any living thing begins to be. If it is alive it has always been, in a certain sense. I have chosen to represent the Lancasterian School as the beginning of our present city school systems. Some will prefer to go further back; just as they might trace the idea of the steam-engine beyond FULTON and WATT and the Marquis of WORCESTER back to the dim records of scientific antiquity. But the real birthday of the steam-engine was the day when it became known that steam-power could be produced with economy, applied at discretion, and controlled with safety. We need not go back to SOLOMON and MOSES for the idea of our public schools. It began to live just when it was shown practically that children could be cheaply and effectively taught in organized masses. So manual education will then only begin to live, when some BELL, or LANCASTER, or ROBERT RAIKES will show us, not on paper but in a working model, how manual education can be given cheaply and efficiently to masses of young people, such as now attend our public schools. I do not wish to underestimate the difficulty of the undertaking and I have therefore stated the problem in its most general form. What is required is a system of manual training which shall be at once cheap, efficient, and applicable on a large scale. Such a scheme cannot be evolved from one's inner consciousness. It cannot be reasoned out from first principles. But if it cannot be *thought* out, it may be *worked* out by the old-fashioned rule known in obsolete Arithmetics as "Trial and Error." It is said that Russia has already solved the problem. As regards efficiency it may be granted; as regards cheapness and adaptation to large numbers, I am doubtful. But if it has been done let us have a working model in each of our ten largest

cities; not as a perfect pattern but a pattern to be perfected;—an experimental model to be enlarged, altered, improved, reformed, as experience shall suggest.

By whom should this model be set up and set a-going? The natural answer would be, By the public-school authorities. We should certainly strive to obtain their coöperation, but it would be long waiting for them to make the beginning. Their hands are full; they have little time and no money even if they had the inclination to make experiments. Besides they were elected or appointed to a different duty and the impulse must come from the people to their officers not from the officers to the people. When the official canvas is swelled by the breeze of popular opinion the ship will move steadily and rapidly enough through the waters; but we must not depend on official breath for wind.

A beginning must be made; and if we cannot expect it to be made by the public, our dependence must be on private enterprise and the philanthropy of associated individuals.

When private benevolence shall have shown that the scheme is practicable, and the public conscience shall have been quickened to a sense of its necessity, the authorities will not long hesitate about adopting it officially. Can money be obtained for such a purpose? Look at the thousand channels through which the healing waters of organized charity are now flowing, and doubt if you can the capacity of the reservoir to supply one streamlet more. The benevolence of the American people is practically inexhaustible. Were there no further demands upon it at home, the waste gates would have to be opened that the surplus might escape to the shores of Africa or to the islands of the sea. What is wanting is not *means*, but *faith*; faith founded on knowledge; not knowledge of an abstract or general character, but a burning conviction that will bring forth the proper fruits of knowledge.

Men must know and feel that we have now arrived at a crisis in our social condition; that as man cannot live by bread alone, so neither can he live by the learning of the schools alone; that the possession of a good common-school education which was once so rare as to be a mark of distinction is now so common as to be noticed only when it is wanting; that a college diploma is no longer a recommendation (but sometimes a disqualification) for a position requiring the exercise of high manly faculty; that the abuse of our wonderful facilities for elementary and secondary education has flooded the country with teachers, lawyers, doctors, clerks, salesmen, runners, and petty traders; that a false social sentiment has increased the evil by perversely making a discrimination in favor of the man that lives by his wits and against the man that lives literally by the sweat of his face; so that if our manufacturing establishments and other great industrial works were obliged to depend exclusively on native American labor one half of them would have to close their doors; that in the train of our immense army of *bona-fide* producers and distributors there is following another army of hungry camp-followers, without either the hands to produce, or the head to distribute, but with stomachs that must be filled at the expense of honest producers and distributors; that this army is daily increasing in numbers and acquiring strength by organiza-

tion ; we have now companies, we shall ere long have regiments of tramps, bummers, loafers, roughs, gamblers, and professional ward politicians.

The people must be made to feel and know that against organized idleness and vice there is but one sure protection,—the organization of skilled and honorable labor. The common school can no longer save us, unless it is supplemented by the common workshop. The rewards which at the beginning of the century were promised to good scholarship, must now be paid to good workmanship founded upon sufficient scholarship. The battle of the schools must be fought once more, but this time for the training of the hand in addition to the cultivation of the intellect. Of old it was claimed that parents had a right to bring up their children in ignorance if they chose; but public opinion said, No! for ignorance in the masses means death to the commonwealth. To-day you will be told that parents have a right to bring up their children in idleness if they choose. But the *vox populi* will again be heard to thunder, No! for the idleness of the masses would be fatal to the republic. It was said of old in relation to elementary education, Let it alone; it will regulate itself; men are moved by self-interest, and it is the interest of parents to educate their children; the parental relation must not be assumed, parental functions must not be discharged, by the State; if the State should teach children to read it would be equally bound to supply them with literature on which to exercise their faculty after they had learned to read;—which would be agrarianism, communism, Fourierism, or some worse *ism*.

But all this special pleading was answered by a simple statement of fact. The parents did not educate their children. According to all the rules of the political and social economists they ought to have done so, but in fact they did not. The State, then was obliged to step in and perform the duties which the parents had neglected. Call that communism if you please.

In like manner though interest and duty and parental affection all combine to enforce on parents the duty of bringing up their children to some form of productive labor, yet the obligation is largely disregarded, and the neglect is greatest just where it can be most hurtful—in our large cities. But the safety of the country demands the suppression of idleness and the encouragement of industry by elevating manual labor to its proper rank among human employments; and the State must for her own protection assume the responsibilities which the parent has disregarded.

We are not to be frightened by the cry of communism; by the warning, which is intended as a threat, that if the State teaches young men to work, the State must also furnish work and pay wages to the graduates of its own creation. It can hardly be doubted that the supply of skilled workers will in the long run create a demand for skilled labor. But should it be otherwise, should the warning prove to be a prophecy, it should not drive us from our position. Better far the cry for honest labor and its wages in lawful money than that other and more fearful cry which so often rang through the streets before the downfall of Rome, "*Panem et Circenses*."

In conclusion, what is the duty of the hour? What can practical teachers and directors of educational affairs do to aid in this beginning of industrial education?

1. We can aid in the dissemination of sound theoretical views on this subject, using the newspaper and the periodical press as our instruments.

2. We can insist that drawing (which holds the same place in industrial as reading does in intellectual education) shall be efficiently taught in every school and in every grade.

3. Those forms of practical work which can be introduced into our present schools without causing confusion should be encouraged. It is hard to find work of this kind for boys. Probably some kind of wood-cutting might be done as a home exercise instead of the burdensome and useless memory tasks. But girls can be taught to sew, darn, knit, patch, cut, and fit, in a series of practical lessons as closely graded as the lessons in a series of Reading-Books.

Lastly, we may be able to aid in establishing, in one or more cities where the means can be procured by private subscription, a workshop after the Russian model, which for industrial training shall be to the graduate of the elementary school what the High School or College now is for intellectual training.

All this being accomplished we may not even have made a real beginning of manual education, for that cannot be achieved without a long and hard-fought battle, but we shall have made a reconnoissance in force, which will reveal the strength of the enemy's position and show us where to plant our guns and how to marshal our forces.

President WHITE, of Purdue University, Indiana, opened the discussion as follows:

The suggestive paper to which we have listened presents hopefully the possibilities of an industrial system of education. It wisely omits the advocacy of any special method of its development. It is perhaps enough to say that when there is an intelligent demand for industrial training, it will be met. We have now only the beginning of such a demand, and it is too early to do more than outline the coming system. The American people are awakening to the fact that skilled labor is competing for the markets of the world, and that American labor must increase its skill or retire from the contest. We are beginning to realize the decay of the apprenticeship system, and to see that technical and trade schools are an industrial necessity; that the means of acquiring technical knowledge and skill must be put within easy reach of the American laborer.

How can this be done? The paper suggests that the elements of needed industrial training can be given in the public schools; that the course of study should include industrial drawing, which underlies all mechanical art, and instruction in such arts as are of general interest, as sewing and cooking. While I heartily approve of this position, may I venture the opinion that only the elements of industrial training can be given in the public school. Its comprehensive function is to provide a general preparation for all pursuits, and, as a rule, it cannot furnish special training for given pursuits. In homogeneous communities the elements of a

common occupation may be easily taught. In the country the course of study may include the elements of agriculture and horticulture. But all this will come far short of what American industry demands.

What is needed is an efficient system of industrial training to supplement the public school, and the indications of growth in this direction are evident. In Europe nearly every line of industry has its special schools. The higher technical institutions are often directed and maintained by government, and art and trade-schools are often supported by municipalities. Most of the schools which teach industrial arts and trades are, however, supported by societies or individuals. I see no reason why there may not be a similar development of industrial schools in this country. A beginning has been made in the industrial colleges founded by Congress, and in the few technical schools established by the bequests of individuals. Business colleges, schools of telegraphy, etc., are in nearly all business centres. These technical and trade-schools will increase with the demand, and it will not take many years to establish and equip an efficient system of industrial training.

I have little expectation that the workshop will ever have an important place in the public school, but I do expect to see public instruction have a more direct relation to industry. When industrial schools come, it will be easy to adjust the public school to the supplementary system. I have long held that the interests of both education and industry would be promoted by the adoption of half-time courses of study, running parallel with the present full courses. Such narrow courses would permit pupils to spend one-half of each day in the public school, and the other half in the trade school, or in the workshop, or in some other employment. Many children must work a part of the time while they are obtaining an education, or they must give up school. When a popular demand for these readjustments of the public school comes, there will be found an easy way to make them.

Permit me, in conclusion, to utter a protest against that advocacy of technical training which disparages and denies the industrial value of general education. There was not a word of this folly in the paper. The productive power of intelligence has long been well attested. The inquiry made by HORACE MANN, and more recently repeated by Commissioner EATON, furnished conclusive evidence on this point, and all the great world expositions have been impressive proofs of the truth that "the hand is another hand when guided by an intelligent mind." The public school has done and is doing more to promote industry than any mere industrial training can ever accomplish. School instruction needs to be *supplemented* (not supplanted or subverted) by industrial training.

The discussion was continued by JOS. M. WILSON, Washington, D. C., who took the ground that manual instruction should be incorporated in all our common schools, and that mental and manual culture should always go together.

This gentleman was followed by H. B. WHITTINGTON, of Philadelphia, who gave a brief history of the plan and organization of the "Société du Patronage des Apprentis de Grenoble, France," and explained how this institution might be modified so as to make it practicable in America.

in connection with our common schools. The speaker stated that the pupils embraced both sexes, and were admitted into the elementary schools at the age of six years. After requiring a knowledge of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, at the age of thirteen years they were removed from the Primary Schools, and pursued a technical course having direct reference to the trade or calling to which they at this time were apprenticed, spending a portion of each day in the factory or workshop, and not less than three hours per day in the training-school. In these technical schools some studies, such as drawing and mathematics, were common to all, but special attention was given to those branches of Physics having a more immediate connection with the particular calling to which the pupil was apprenticed—thus the pupil who was apprenticed to the trade of a dyer made the study of Chemistry a specialty. These young craftsmen were also given practical instruction in the nature of the raw materials used in their particular trade—where and how produced. The securing of places for these pupils in the workshop and factory was accomplished in the following manner:—In connection with the municipal authorities to whom the administration and support of the “*Société*” was entrusted, there is a “Board of Patrons” composed of men and women prominent in the various manufactures and handicraft pursued in the city. This Board of Patrons is intrusted with the supervision of the schools, and each member becomes as it were the guardian of one or more of the pupils, and when the proper time arrives, either takes the pupils as apprentices in his or her factory or workshop, or provides places for them and retains the supervision over them until the pupils complete their apprenticeship, which takes from seven to nine years. Another feature of the institution is that once a year each pupil is required to write a paper on some subject relating to his profession or trade, and all such papers exhibiting excellence or progress are rewarded with suitable prizes in accordance with their merits. The Board of Patrons is composed of the best citizens, men and women who have attained distinction in their particular callings, as for instance in the Board at Grenoble are found such members as M. ARMAND CALVART and his wife, whose reputation as manufacturers are known throughout France—and whose goods find a market in both Europe and America.

Now all that is necessary to make such a plan practical in America is for some of our public-spirited master mechanics and manufacturers to take hold of this matter, and I think they will find the school authorities ready to co-operate with them; for there is no doubt that the time has arrived when our common schools will be called to assist in solving the great “Labor problem,”—and the question “What shall we do with our boys?” must be met; and since the old apprenticeship system has passed away the incorporation of Industrial and Art Instruction in our common schools has become a necessity.

Mr. SHELLEY, of York, Pa., then made a few remarks, and introduced JOHN HITZ, of Washington, D. C., Consul-General of Switzerland, who read a paper on the plan and organization of “A Home for Boys and Girls,” in Kent, England, entitled,

DESTITUTE CHILDREN.

"The most effective means to dispel wretchedness is to let the light of knowledge and love of use penetrate its recesses."—ANON.

The Home for Little Boys in Kent.—Old-Boys' Day.—Its Industrial Features. The Bakery, Shoemaking, Paint Shop, Machinery, Printing-Office, Steam Laundry, Tailor and Carpenter Shops, Needleroom and Store—Farm—School-house and Chapel—The Children's Cottages—their arrangements—Father and Mother—How to earn, save, and spend money—Are we guilty of neglect?

As third and last article on institutions for the care and training of dependent children, I now propose to give a brief account of a visit made just one year ago to the delightful "Home for Little Boys," in Kent, England. Were also girls and not only boys admitted, it might justly be termed in every respect a model institution of its kind, although only its educational and not its industrial department is under the management of the Public-School Board. This institution was founded in 1864 by a committee believed to have been of the School Board of London.

It first occupied an old building formerly used as a parish workhouse, at Tottenham, where fourteen boys not over ten years of age were provided for. In less than two years these inmates had increased to over ninety, and the pressure for further admission was so powerful that it became imperative to provide more suitable quarters. The present location in Kent, near Farmingham Station, on the line of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railroad, some fifteen miles from London, and embracing an area of nineteen acres, was selected. It was decided at the start to adopt the so-called "family" or Cottage System, both on account of the lack of funds to erect a large institutional structure, but more especially on account of the far greater facility it afforded of imparting to the place the real comforts, attractions, and advantages of a "Home."

In 1866 the first building was erected and from year to year others have been added thereto, until on the occasion of my visit in June last, I found ten brown stone cottages, containing over three hundred inmates, besides ample and substantial workshops, storehouse, school-room, and commodious chapel.

In the absence of Mr. A. O. CHARLES, the Superintendent, his able assistant Mr. W. J. C. DAY, conducted me around. First on entering the premises, which at a distance resembles some well-to-do suburban settlement, stood a very cosy little structure called the "Old Boys' Lodge," donated, I was told, by some unknown benefactor, and intended expressly as the temporary home of boys who have creditably left the institution and occasionally return to pay short visits. It has its reception and reading-room, library, dormitories, and other conveniences, and annually on what is called "Old-Boys' Day," when all who have left the institution and conveniently can, meet to greet each other and the dear and only home of their childhood, its walls are filled with grateful hearts and resound to the echo of many a happy voice.

After resting awhile in the reception-room of the Superintendent, adjacent to his offices, and partaking of some refreshments, I first visited the

Bakery, where, assisted by several boys, I found the master baker busy preparing sundry "extras" in the shape of cakes for the approaching "Old-Boys' Day."

Next the *shoemaker's shop* was visited and several boys found at work under a competent master. Not only was mending done but some *excellent* new work shown. Each boy in the institution, I was told, is allowed, according to the work done, from two to three pairs of shoes a year exclusive of mending.

The *paint shop* was then looked into where a master painter and boys attend to all the painting required on the premises.

Next was inspected the *steam-engine* building, where an excellent engine of eight-horse power furnishes what motive power is wanted, and in the absence of springs or running water pumps from a well 120 feet deep all the water used on the premises. The engine-room with its two fine boilers and handy forge attached, was found in marvellously perfect order and reflected great credit on the engineer and his boy assistants in charge.

I then stepped into the *printing-office* adjacent, and was surprised at the perfection of its arrangement. There stood eight cases with the best and newest founts of type, one large "BREUNER" press and three of smaller patterns. Tracts, leaflets, reports, quarterly magazines, and handbills for neighboring tradesmen, are done here in a most superior manner, and like an expert who had preceded me I was astonished at the style of work turned out, the technical skill and good taste displayed. The boys who leave this printing-office I felt certain would find no difficulty in obtaining employment.

The *steam laundry*, close by, contains five superb boilers, one washing-machine, one centrifugal dryer, wringers, steam mangles, and a steam drying arrangement for use during wet or damp weather,—all of which are operated by boys under a male superintendent and female assistant.

Adjoining is a most invaluable structure, a *swimming bath* from two to four feet deep, and twenty-five feet square, where 90 boys bathe every evening in squads of 30 at a time under the eye of a swimming master.

The temperature of the water can readily be regulated and skylights of colored glass are introduced to neutralize the otherwise deleterious effects of the sun's rays on the chalk or limestone water of the locality.

Near by, ascending one flight of stairs, I entered the *tailoring shop*. Ten boys were at work under a master, cutting, making up, and pressing new cloth suits, and repairing old ones, several sewing-machines being in use. From two to four suits a year are allowed each boy in the institution according to the labor he performs, corduroy material to work in, and tweed for Sunday and holiday wear.

At the *carpenter shop* I found a master workman and four boys employed. As yet no steam-power had been used, but it was contemplated to introduce the same in the new shop about to be erected. Some fine specimens of sash made by the boys were shown, also some excellent dovetailing, and here, too, are made those neat little trunks with handy drawers and locks, to contain the outfit of every boy leaving the Home.

I next entered the *needlework room* close to the Superintendent's house.

Here a lady was in charge superintending a number of boys busy at shirts, others mending, knitting, and attending the two sewing-machines used—rather pleased to have their work examined and evidently not finding it irksome.

The new *warehouse* nearly finished had the first floor already occupied as a *store*, very conveniently fitted up with drawers and shelves made by the boys. This store is conducted by a storekeeper and boy assistants on strict business principles, and not only furnishes supplies to the "Home" and its inmates but also to the neighborhood. It was well stocked with goods usually found in a good country store. In the basement most excellent storage arrangements and the second floor used for a like purpose, but so constructed that it could easily be cleared and made to serve as a hall for entertainments.

The *school-house*, a fine building to accommodate 200 pupils at a time, was the gift of friends in Bradford, and in their honor called *Bradford School*. Boys under ten years of age attend six hours and all older ones three hours daily, and the balance of time exclusive of recreation and sleep being devoted to work on the farm or in their respective shops, not continuously, however, as the working boys are divided into two gangs and daily relieve each other at stated periods. I found two male and two female teachers giving instruction and also a Kindergarten department. The rooms were so arranged that two could readily be thrown into one. Maps, charts, anatomical illustrations, specimens of natural history, and philosophical instruments, etc., seemed abundantly supplied. The singing was excellent.

Towards the further end of the premises the *farm* is located, where about a dozen boys are constantly employed. Horses, cows, and pigs are tended with persistent care,—and the little farm-yard kept in most commendable order. Vegetables and small fruits cultivated and most other work usually done on farms attended to.

Apart from the main cluster of buildings stands a neat cottage called the *Infirmary* in charge of a Matron—who with her single patient confined by a slight abscess—seemed rather lonely but nevertheless cheerful.

The *Chapel* occupies a prominent site, is of Gothic architecture, and I should judge would seat some 500 persons, contains a large, fine-toned reed organ, and on Sundays, I am told, is frequented by many persons residing in the neighborhood.

One of the most interesting features of the institution is the "Family" plan adopted in lodging and boarding the inmates. There are ten two-story so-called cottages, each an architectural gem in its way, and named after their donors, or in honor of some devoted friend. A charitable lady gave one—after whom it is named. Another was erected as a memorial to her deceased husband by a devoted wife and named after him, whilst a third is the gift of a London congregation which named it "Quiet Resting-Place," a fourth is the gift of the children of England and fitly called "The Children's Cottage"—and so on, gradually one after another has been added and likely will continue to be as the good work near a feeder like London has virtually only begun.

Each cottage accommodates 30 boys and is in charge of a so-called *father* and *mother*—usually an elderly married couple—who live with their somewhat large charge in every respect *en famille*, take meals with the children, read and pray with them just as parents would—the *father* at the same time being at the head and in charge of one of the industrial departments. On the first floor of these cottages one finds a cosy sitting and reception-room with bay-window—supplied with various evidences of culture and refinement. Adjoining there is a tidy-looking dining-room and attached a neat kitchen furnished with range and other conveniences. A play-room for the boys, a bath- and wash-room, pantry and closets, complete the apartments on the first floor. On the second floor one finds the *father* and *mother's* chamber, the clothes closets, and three dormitories each containing 10 of the “institution bedsteads” with endless sacking bottom so arranged as to enable pillows to be dispensed with.

A *Savings-Bank* has been established for some time—less however it would seem to encourage hoarding than to teach the *use* of money. Occasionally excursions are arranged but the boys must contribute their shilling or more as the case may be. Thus the habit of “self-help” is inculcated which in institutional life is so apt to suffer, and boys learn to realize that recreation costs money as well as time. Therefore the ability to *earn* money is provided for when the boys reach the age of thirteen and have attained to the so-called fifth standard in school. They are then placed at work all day and attend school at night, or rather after working hours—the period of labor thus being much the same as when they shall have left the institution. They are then allowed about six cents a week for pocket money provided reports from workshop, school, and home as to conduct are satisfactory. Thus these boys are practically taught to *earn*, *save*, and *spend* money, on the right doing of which will in a great measure depend their future happiness and success in life.

Just as I was about leaving the boys came marching along in sections from their several cottage homes on their way to work or school. Unattended save by a monitor who led off, they filed by, politely saluting. Their happy faces there and then, their attractive surroundings led me to think what they might be had the Home in Kent not opened its doors to them—and I wondered if they had sisters and what had become of them. After thus being shown what has been done elsewhere for the enforced youthful associates of misery, wretchedness, and crime, I ask is the limited support extended to the “Industrial Home School of the District” the most we can do at the National Capital in this direction, or do not the words of the poet apply also here?

“Those others, lean and small,
Scurf and mildew of the city,”—
Spot our streets, *convict us all*
“Till we take them into pity.”

This closed the discussion, and on motion the chairman appointed the following committee on nomination for officers, to report the following day: Prof. ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, E. A. SPRING, of New Jersey, and FRANK ABORN, of Cleveland, Ohio.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

At the second afternoon session of this Department, EDWARD A. SPRING, sculptor, of Perth Amboy, N. J., addressed a large audience on Industrial Education, illustrating his remarks by modelling in clay while he talked. He had a kit of soft clay of a drab color, with scratchers and all the necessary apparatus for doing his work, from the modelling of a woman's head to making a prairie dog. After the work got under way the room rapidly filled, until there was barely standing room, and Mr. SPRING so monopolized the interest of his audience that they would not let him stop, but kept him at the work all the afternoon. Sometimes questions would be put to him, which he always answered.

He manipulated the clay and kept up a running lecture all the while. His demonstrations mainly applied to industrial education as the basis of all knowledge of form in its relations to matter. There was hardly anything known but was related in some way to form; hence the use of a plastic substance was the true way to demonstrate the elementary principles of the subject. He first gave illustrations in solid geometry, then described the nature of clay and the practical points of its use. He demonstrated some principles of life and growth by modelling several animal forms, and then varied the exercises by reading the following brief paper:

"In beginning clay work in our present schools, it would be well to start with very small quantities, each scholar having the same form, and at once give habits of neatness and precision of touch. Many interesting and instructive exercises in geometry can be done by a few careful touches of the fingers to shapes of clay not much larger than beans. By this means the nature of the material and certain properties of matter generally can become a part of each one's knowledge, and by this means some of the duller pages of our text-books will become illuminated with pleasant associations. One of my pupils, after fifteen minutes on a certain exercise, exclaimed: "Well, I never could understand cube root before, though I have been several times over that part of the arithmetic." There is more than one bridge, the keystone of which might be easily made of clay. The enthusiasm and delight that are very common, and the intense application to the work in almost every case, even by the babies, are natural indications of the hold it takes upon the mind, and of the wisdom of using such strong instinctive tendencies in education."

Then taking up a piece of clay, with a few turns of the hand he shaped something on a block. Holding it up the audience readily recognized several small prairie dogs, standing erect, as they may be seen in the Zoölogical Garden any day. A few more turns of the hand shaped something else which the audience did not recognize so easily. They were two owls, more diminutive than the dogs. Beyond them was another object more readily recognized. It was a serpent. Holding the block up

before the audience, with these living forms represented thereon, Mr. SPRING informed his hearers that they were a group familiar to all who had travelled over the Union Pacific Railroad—prairie “gophers,” with their good friends, the burrowing owls, and a rattlesnake beyond.

Venerable Scientist—Does the rattlesnake gopher the prairie dog?

Out of respect for the ladies present, the venerable scientist was not put out, and the sculptor, turning his face to the blackboard for a moment, dropped the subject of prairie dogs and began to model a woman's head. This was particularly interesting. Taking up a large mass of clay he flung it against the blackboard, repeating the operation several times, until he had quite a little mound of earth there. Previously he had drawn the outline of a human face on the board with chalk. The clay was thrown against the centre of this. With his hands he then began to reduce the shapeless mass of clay to a human face. In this the audience watched him with breathless interest. When his work had progressed far enough to make it a pretty good specimen of a human face, without, however, any definite signs, as to the sex, the sculptor humorously suspended work and, turning to the audience, asked them which they would have, a man's head or a woman's head. There was a breathless and embarrassing silence.

Sculptor—All in favor of making it a man's head, raise their hands.

The venerable scientist, raised his hand just about an inch, looked at a seat full of other venerable scientists beside him, whose hands were planted rigidly in their laps, then in some haste dropped his hand again and looked straight at the floor. Not a hand went up.

“All in favor of making it a woman's head, raise their hands,” said the sculptor.

Every hand in the room went up, women's included. The sculptor laughed and turned to the blackboard.

Then he began to trim down the chin, reduce the nose, and to soften and tone down the features generally.

“Too much strength in that chin for a woman,” he said, explanatorily, as he began to carve it down.

Venerable Scientist (innocently)—I thought that was where a woman's strength always lay.

At this point a man was noticed to grasp for a chair, but somebody was sitting on it and he failed to get it. The excitement was only temporary, however, and in a few moments quiet had been restored sufficient for the sculptor to resume work. It turned out to be the head of a very good-looking woman in the end, and everybody admired it. This closed the exercises of the afternoon, in which all present had been greatly interested.

The entire session having been occupied by Prof. SPRING, the paper of Prof. ALEX. HOGG was postponed until the following day, and was read before the General Association.

The committee on nomination made the following report which was on motion adopted. Officers to serve for the ensuing year: *President*—E. E.

WHITE, President of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind. ; *Vice-President*—ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas ; *Secretary*—H. B. WHITTINGTON, 1320 Jackson Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

On motion, adjourned.

The Department met on Thursday afternoon at 3 o'clock at the Permanent Exhibition Building—but owing to the many attractions of the place, adjourned immediately after assembling.

HENRY B. WHITTINGTON, Secretary,
1320 Jackson St. Phil., Pa.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

The Department met in Washington City Dec. 11, and 12, 1877, and also in the same place Feb. 4, 5, and 6, 1879.

The Proceedings of these meetings have been published by the Bureau of Education in Circular No. 2, 1879, filling 175 pages, to which is added an appendix of 14 pages, containing the Proceedings of the Conference of the Presidents and other Delegates of the State Universities and State Colleges, held at Columbus, Ohio, Dec. 27, and 28, 1877.

This 192-page pamphlet is not the property of the National Educational Association, and hence cannot be bound with this volume and sent to members.

PHILADELPHIA, JULY 31, 1879.

The Department of Superintendence was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in Room No. 6 of the Girls' Normal-School Building, by Dr. J. P. WICKERSHAM, its President, to elect officers for the ensuing year.

M. A. NEWELL, of Maryland, was elected President.

N. A. CALKINS, of New York, Vice-President, and

S. A. BAER, of Pennsylvania, Secretary.

On motion adjourned to meet in Washington, D. C., but the time of meeting was left to the officers in connection with Gen. EATON.

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION:

[*As Amended July 11, 1876.*]

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

§ 1. It shall consist of five Departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; and the fourth, of Higher Instruction, and the fifth of Industrial Education.

§ 2. Other Departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

§ 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership shall cease.

§ 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

§ 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once, twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

§ 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counsellor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments. Any friend of

education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf.

§ 2. The President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, Life-Directors, and presiding officers of their respective departments, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

§ 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

§ 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

§ 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the First Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro-tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

§ 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors; and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

§ 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

§ 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

§ 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three trustees into whose hands shall be placed for safe keeping and investment, all funds which

the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships, or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association, unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

§ 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

§ 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

§ 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

§ 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

§ 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

§ 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At this first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations; one on Honorary Members; and one on Resolutions.

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary, shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture, or address, shall be read before the Association or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address, be published in the volume of proceedings without the consent of the Association in each case.

MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

LIST OF LIFE-DIRECTORS.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn., White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Marshall, T. Marcellus, Glenville, W. Va.

LIST OF LIFE-MEMBERS.

[Addresses have been changed from last year only in cases in which the change comes under the positive knowledge of the Secretary.]

OGDENSBURG, 1864.

Barnard, Henry, Hartford, Conn.,	Hagar, D. B., Salem, Mass.,
Bradley, P., Lyons, N. Y.,	Pennell, C. S., St. Louis, Mo.,
Cruikshank, J., Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Richards, Z., Washington, D. C.,
Danforth, Edward, Elmira, N. Y.,	Wells,* D. F., Iowa City, Iowa,
Eberhart, J. F., Chicago, Ill.,	White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

HARRISBURG, 1866.

Greene, S. S., Providence, R. I.,	Sheldon, W: E., Boston, Mass.,
Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union, Ohio,	Wickersham, J. P. Harrisburg, Pa.
Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg, Pa.,	

INDIANAPOLIS, 1866.

Curran, U. T., Sandusky, Ohio,	Mayhew, Ira, Albion, Mich.,
McRae, H. S., Muncie, Ind.,	Norris,* John A., Columbus, Ohio.

CLEVELAND, 1870.

Arey, Oliver, Cleveland, Ohio,	Williams, Mrs. Delia A., Delaware, O.,
Allen, Ira W., Lake Forest, Ill.,	Manly, R. M., Richmond, Va.,
Cole, W. H., Marysville, Ohio,	M'Guffey,* W. H., University of Va.,
Crosby, Wm. E., Davenport, Iowa,	Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn.,
Hoyt, J. W., Madison, Wis.,	Read,* Daniel, Columbia, Mo.,
Hoose, J. H., Cortland, N. Y.,	Rickoff, A. J., Cleveland, Ohio,
Hobbs, B. C., Annapolis, Ind.,	Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford, Ct.,
Heywood, C. W., Chester X Roads, O.,	Tourjee, Eben, Boston, Mass.,
Holden, L. E., Cleveland, Ohio,	Wilcox, M. C., Boston, Mass.,
Jones, D. W., Boston (Higl's), Mass.,	White, E. E., Lafayette, Ind.

* Deceased.

ST. LOUIS, 1871.

Anderson, John J., New York, N. Y., Box 1619.

BOSTON, 1872.

Stone, E. M., Providence, R. I.

ELMIRA, 1873.

Haines,* Miss Henrietta B., 10 Gramercy Park, N. Y.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City, Iowa,	Marshall, T. M., Glenville, W. Va.,
Beals, S. D., Omaha, Nebraska,	Nelson, C. K., Annapolis, Md.,
Bell, W. A., Indianapolis, Ind.,	Newell, M. A., Baltimore, Md.,
Brooks, Edward, Millersville, Pa.,	Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore, Md.,
<i>Cruikshank, Jas.</i> , Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Rollins, Jas. S., Columbia, Mo.,
Dorna, G. Videla, New York, N. Y.,	Rounds, C. C., Farmington, Me.,
Forbes, Alex., Cleveland, Ohio,	Schmitz, J. Adolph, Lake Forest, Ill.,
Hancock, John, Dayton, Ohio,	Stevens, M. C., Lafayette, Ind.,
Harris, W. T., St. Louis, Mo.,	<i>Stone, Mrs. M. A.</i> , New Milford, Conn.,
Henkle, W. D., Salem, Ohio,	Thompson, L. S., Lafayette, Ind.,
Laws, S. S., Columbia, Mo.,	<i>White, E. E.</i> , Lafayette, Ind.,
Malone, J. R., Dallas, Texas,	<i>Wickersham, J. P.</i> , Harrisburg, Pa.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville, Ky.,	Kalfus, Miss Anna I., Louisville, Ky.,
Burleson, R. C., Waco, Texas,	Mills,* Caleb, Crawfordsville, Ind.,
Fish, J. M., Little Rock, Ark.,	Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Louisville, Ky.,
Franklin, M. B., Grapevine, Texas,	Smart, J. H., Indianapolis, Ind.,
Harley, J. M., Tishomingo, Ind. Ter.,	Soldan, Louis, St. Louis, Mo.

PHILADELPHIA, 1879.

Calkins, Norman A., New York, N. Y. M'Millan, Reuben, Youngstown, O.,
 Foster, Miss Rachel Gordon, No. Paxson, Joseph A., Philadelphia, Pa.,
 1909 N. 12th St., Philadelphia, Pa., *Sheldon, Wm. E.*, Boston, Mass.,
 Kraus John, New York, N. Y., Shippen, Edward, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Kraus-Boelte, Mrs. Maria, New York,
 N. Y.,

The names printed in Italics are of persons who had previously become life-members when the fee was \$10, but who chose to pay \$10 more and become life-members under the new fee of \$20.

Several persons who gave their names for life-memberships at Baltimore and Louisville have failed to pay the membership fee. Notice is now given that if the fees be not received before the publication of the next proceedings the names will be dropped in accordance with the unanimous sentiment of the Board of Directors. (See proceedings of the Board of Directors.)

* Deceased.

NAMES ENROLLED AT PHILADELPHIA.

ARRANGED BY STATES.

In order to get the Pennsylvania list on one page it is placed last, out of its alphabetic order.

CONNECTICUT.

Henry Barnard, Hartford,	C. W. Knudsen, South Norwalk,
D. N. Camp, New Britain,	Mrs. M. A. Stone, New Milford.

DELAWARE.

Miss Sarah M. Fell, Wilmington,	Wm. H. Purnell, Newark,
Miss Ann Fothergill, Wilmington,	Miss Emma Worrell, Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Greensville Dowell, Washington,	Z. Richards, Washington,
John Eaton, Washington,	J. Ormond Wilson, Washington.
Abraham Hart, Washington,	

FLORIDA.

W. P. Haisley, Tallahassee,	J. H. Roper, Gainesville.
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ILLINOIS.

Miss Jane M. Bancroft, Evanston,	Edmund J. James, Normal,
Edwin C. Hewitt, Normal,	F. T. Oldt, Lanark.
Miss Sarah A. Hunter, Rockford,	

INDIANA.

W: A. Bell, Indianapolis,	L. S. Thompson, Lafayette,
Geo. P. Brown, Terre Haute,	E. E. White, Lafayette,
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne,	T. A. Wylie, Bloomington.
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington,	

IOWA.

Jas. C. Gilchrist, Cedar Falls,	J. L. Pickard, Iowa City,
Miss Maude Gilchrist, Cedar Falls,	Miss Eliz. A. Sorin, Clarinda.

MARYLAND.

Jas. M. Garnett, Annapolis,	M. A. Newell, Baltimore.
C. K. Nelson, Annapolis,	

MASSACHUSETTS.

Chas. H. Ames, Boston,	John D. Philbrick, Danvers.
Henry F. Harrington, New Bedford,	W: E. Sheldon, Boston.
Geo. F. Phelps, Boston,	

MICHIGAN.**Lewis McLouth, Ypsilanti.****MINNESOTA.****Wm. F. Phelps, Winona.****MISSOURI.****Miss Grace C. Bibb, State University, Wm. T. Harris, St. Louis.****NEW JERSEY.**

Wm. N. Barringer, Newark,	Miss Nancy R. Field, East Orange,
Rodolphus Bingham, Camden,	Chas. K. Middleton, Camden,
H. K. Bugbee, Williamstown,	Edward A. Spring, Perth Amboy,
Miss Elizabeth Burton, Plainfield,	Mrs. H. K. Traske, Bridgeton,
Miss E. C. Collins, Port Republic,	Marcus Willson, Vineland,
Miss Emma Culin, Hartford,	Kate Weekes, Trenton.
Miss D. J. Eldridge, Cape May C. H.,	

NEW YORK.

Mrs. G. Van Aiken, Elizabethtown,	John Kraus, New York.
F. N. Bardwell, Hempstead,	Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte, New York,
N. A. Calkins, New York,	Geo. H. Shattuck, New York,
L. B. Corey, New York,	Edward Smith, Syracuse,
Edward Danforth, Elmira,	J. Dorman Steele, Elmira.
Miss Nancy Elliott, New York,	

OHIO.

Frank Aborn, Cleveland,	Reuben McMillan, Youngstown,
E. M. Avery, Cleveland,	Miss Ruth Morris, Cleveland,
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati,	A. J. Rickoff, Cleveland,
John Hancock, Dayton,	Charlotte A. Stewart, Loudonville.
W. D. Henkle, Salem,	Eli T. Tappan, Gambier.

RHODE ISLAND.**A. M. Gammell, Philadelphia. (?)****TENNESSEE.****Miss Helen Hoadley, Knoxville.****TEXAS.****Alexander Hogg, College Station.****VERMONT.****A. B. Corliss, East Corinth.****VIRGINIA.****J. H. Peay, Richmond.****WEST VIRGINIA.**

W. Colegrove, Flemington,	A. L. Wade, Morgantown,
T. Marcellus Marshall, Glenville.	

WISCONSIN.**Jno. P. Bird, La Crosse.**

PENNSYLVANIA.

- Wm. H. Allen, Philadelphia,
 Miss Julia C. Arner, Philadelphia,
 S. A. Baer, Berks County,
 Theodore M. Barber, Pittsburgh,
 G. W. Bartch, Shenandoah,
 D. W. Bartine, Philadelphia,
 A. H. Berlin, Pittston,
 E. Benj. Bierman, Annville,
 Miss M. F. Boice, Kennett Square,
 Edward Brooks, Millersville,
 Wm. M. Boal, Northumberland,
 M. E. Buckwalter, Mt. Joy,
 R. K. Buehrle, Reading,
 Miss Ruth R. Burritt, Philadelphia,
 Miss Delia B. Burt, Philadelphia,
 Chas. E. Cadwalader, Philadelphia,
 R. H. Carothers, Shippensburg,
 Henry C. Clinton, Philadelphia,
 James M. Coughlin, Kingston,
 Miss Lucy Cope, Toughkenamon,
 Watson Cornell, Philadelphia,
 S. M. Cornman, Philadelphia,
 Philip Cressman, Philadelphia,
 J. W. Danenhower, Minersville,
 David B. Detweiler, Ft. Washington,
 George Eastburn, Philadelphia,
 A. D. Eisenhower, Norristown,
 Miss Laura Ensign, Cedar Falls,
 Miss Hannah Epright, Leopard,
 George W. Fetter, Philadelphia,
 Wm. Fewsmith, Philadelphia,
 A. P. Flint, Philadelphia,
 L. O. Foose, Harrisburg,
 Benjamin Franklin, New Brighton,
 O. E. French, Montrose,
 Miss Mary F. Garner, Philadelphia,
 Miss M. T. Gawthrop, Philadelphia,
 Miss Sallie H. Gilbert, Buckingham,
 J. K. Gotwals, Philadelphia,
 Simon Gratz, Philadelphia,
 D. W. Gross, Millersville,
 John R. Groves, Coudersport,
 S. S. Haldeman, Chickies,
 Miss Annie H. Hall, Philadelphia,
 Jacob W. Harvey, Unionville,
 Geo. P. Hays, Washington,
 Miss Annie Heacock, Jenkintown,
 Henry Houck, Harrisburg,
 W. S. Hulslander, Mansfield,
 Miss D. E. Huntsman, West Chester,
 S. D. Ingram, Harrisburg,
 E. T. Jeffers, New Wilmington,
 B. C. Jilson, Pittsburgh,
 J. O. Knauss, Allentown,
 Edward Lewis, Philadelphia,
 William A. Lindsey, Harrisburg,
 Miss S. Launia Loder, Philadelphia,
 E. Oram Lyte, Millersville,
 J. P. McCaskey, Lancaster,
 Miss Mime McCommon, Oxford,
 John J. Macfarlane, Philadelphia,
 Edward MacHard, Philadelphia,
 F. P. Manhart, Bloomsburg,
 F. A. March, Easton,
 George L. Maris, West Chester,
 Miss Lizzie Marshall, Philadelphia,
 Miss Patience Michener, West Grove,
 Miss Mary C. Milligan, Philadelphia,
 I. V. Montgomery, Millersville,
 Miss Annie L. Morgan, Harrisburg,
 Miss M. L. Morrison, Philadelphia,
 Wm. Noetling, Bloomsburg,
 Miss Julia A. Orum, Germantown,
 Andrew J. Palm, Mercer,
 Lelia E. Patridge, W. Philadelphia,
 B. H. Patterson, Oil City,
 Douglass Patterson, Mount Joy,
 Joseph A. Paxson, Philadelphia,
 Miss Alice A. Pearson, Darby,
 E. L. Pearson, Philadelphia,
 Mrs. E. L. Pearson, Philadelphia,
 Moses Peirce, Plymouth Meeting,
 Geo. W. Phillips, Pleasant Mountain,
 B. S. Potter, Shippensburg,
 Joseph Roney, Scranton,
 Miss Maria L. Sanford, Philadelphia,
 W. P. Scharf, Selin's Grove,
 J. Warren Schlichter, Conshohocken,
 Miss C. H. Schrader, Philadelphia,
 W. T. Seal, Philadelphia,
 D. M. Sensenig, West Chester,
 B. F. Shaub, Lancaster,
 W. H. Shelly, York,
 Edward Shippen, Philadelphia,
 Miss Annie Shoemaker, Jenkintown,
 J. W. Shoemaker, Philadelphia,
 Chas. A. Singer, Philadelphia,
 Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia,
 H. H. Spayd, Minersville,
 George H. Stout, Philadelphia,
 A. P. Supplee, Hazelton,
 J. R. Sypher, Philadelphia,
 Franklin Taylor, Philadelphia,
 Miss Alice W. Turner, Philadelphia,
 Robert Turner, Millersville,
 D. J. Waller, Jr., Bloomsburg,
 Jacob C. White, Jr., Philadelphia,
 H. B. Whittington, Philadelphia,
 J. P. Wickersham, Harrisburg,
 Mrs. J. P. Wickersham, Lancaster,
 M. B. Wicks, Philadelphia,
 Albert B. Williams, Philadelphia,
 Silas Wright, McAllistersville.

NAMES ENROLLED AT PHILADELPHIA, ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

Aborn, Frank, Ohio.,
Allen, Wm. H., Pa.,
Ames, Chas. H., Mass.,

Baer, S. A., Pa.,
Bancroft, Miss Jane M., Ill.,
Barber, Theodore M., Pa.,
Bardwell, F. N., N. Y.,
Barnard, Henry, Conn.,
Barringer, Wm. N., N. J.,
Bartch, G. W., Pa.,
Bartine, D. W., Pa.,
Bell, W. A., Ind.,
Berlin, A. H., Pa.,
Bibb, Miss Grace C., Mo.,
Bierman, E. Benj., Pa.,

Cadwalader, Chas. E., Pa.,
Calkins, N. A., N. Y.,
Camp, D. N., Conn.,
Carothers, R. H., Pa.,
Clinton, Henry C., Pa.,
Colegrove, W., W. Va.,
Collins, Miss Emma C., N. J.,
Cope, Miss Lucy, Pa.,

Danenhower, Joseph W., Pa.,
Danforth, Edward, N. Y.,

Eastburn, George, Pa.,
Eaton, John, D. C.,
Eisenhower, A. D., Pa.,
Eldridge, Miss Debbie J., N. J.,

Fell, Miss Sarah M., Del.,
Fetter, Geo. W., Pa.,
Fewsmith, Wm., Pa.,
Field, Miss Nancy R., N. J.,
Flint, A. P., Pa.,

Gammell, A. M., R. I.,
Garner, Miss Mary F., Pa.,
Garnett, Jas. M., Md.,
Gawthrop, Miss Mary T., Pa.,
Gilbert, Miss Sallie H., Pa.,
Gilchrist, Jas. C., Iowa,

A.

Arner, Miss Julia C., Pa.,
Avery, E. M., Ohio.

B.

Bingham, Rodolphus, N. J.,
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Boice, Miss M. Frances, Pa.,
Brooks, Edward, Pa.,
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Buckwalter, M. E., Pa.,
Buehrle, R. K., Pa.,
Bugbee, H. K., N. J.,
Burritt, Miss Ruth R., Pa.
Burt, Miss Delia B., Pa.
Burton, Miss Elizabeth, N. J.

C.

Corey, L. B., N. Y.,
Corliss, A. B., Vt.,
Cornell, Watson, Pa.,
Cornman, S. M., Pa.,
Coughlin, Jas. M., Pa.,
Coy, E. W., Ohio.,
Cressman, Philip, Pa.,
Culin, Miss Emma, N. J.

D.

Detweiler, David B., Pa.,
Dowell, Greenville, D. C.

E.

Elliott, Miss Nancy, N. Y.,
Ensign, Miss Laura, Pa.,
Epright, Miss Hannah, Pa.

F.

Foose, L. O., Pa.,
Fothergill, Miss Ann, Del.,
Franklin, Benj., Pa.,
French, O. E., Pa.

G.

Gilchrist, Miss Maude, Iowa.
Gotwals, J. K., Pa.,
Gratz, Simon, Pa.,
Gross, D. W., Pa.,
Groves, Jno. R., Pa.

Haisley, W. P., Fla.,
Haldeman, S. S., Pa.,
Hall, Miss Annie H., Pa.
Hancock, John, Ohio,
Harrington, Henry F., Mass.,
Harris, William T., Mo.,
Harvey, Jacob W., Pa.,
Hays, Geo. P., Pa.,
Heacock, Miss Annie, Pa.,

Ingram, S. D., Pa.,

James, Edmund J., Ill.,
Jeffers, E. T., Pa.,

Knauss, J. O., Pa.,
Knudsen, C. W., Conn.,

Lewis, Edward, Pa.,
Lindsey, William A., Pa.,

McCaskey, J. P., Pa.,
Macfarlane, Jno. J., Pa.,
MacHarg, Edward, Pa.,
McCommon, Miss Mime, Pa.,
McLouth, Lewis, Mich.,
McMillan, Reuben, Ohio,
Manhart, F. P., Pa.,
March, F. A., Pa.,
Maris, Geo. L., Pa.,
Marshall, Miss Lizzie, Pa.,

Nelson, C. K., Md.,
Newell, M. A., Md.,

Orum, Miss Julia A., Pa.,

Palm, Andrew J., Pa.,
Patridge, Miss Lelia E., Pa.,
Patterson, B. H., Pa.,
Patterson, Douglass, Pa.,
Paxson, Joseph A., Pa.,
Pearson, Miss Alice A., Pa.,
Pearson, E. L., Pa.,
Pearson, Mrs. E. L., Pa.,
Peay, J. H., Va.,

H.

Henkle, W. D., Ohio.,
Hewitt, Edwin C., Ill.,
Hoadley, Miss Helen, Tenn.,
Hogg, Alexander, Texas,
Houck, Henry, Pa.,
Hulslander, W. S., Pa.,
Hunter, Miss Sarah A., Ill.,
Huntsman, Miss D. Emma, Pa.,
Hart, Abraham, D. C.

I.

Irwin, John S., Ind.,

J.

Jillson, B. C., Pa.

K.

Kraus, John, N. Y.,
Kraus-Boelte, Mrs. Maria, N. Y.

L.

Lodor, Miss S. Launia, Pa.,
Lyte, E. Oram, Pa.

M.

Marshall, T. Marcellus, W. Va.,
Michener, Miss Patience, Pa.,
Middleton, Chas. K., N. J.,
Milligan, Miss Mary C., Pa.,
Montgomery, I. V., Pa.,
Morgan, Miss Annie L., Pa.,
Morris, Miss Ruth, Ohio,
Morrison, Miss M. Louisa, Pa.,
Moss, Lemuel, Ind.

N.

Noetling, William, Pa.

O.

Oldt, F. T., Ill.

P.

Peirce, Moses, Pa.,
Phelps, Geo. F., Mass.,
Phelps, Wm. F., Minn.,
Philbrick, Jno. D., Mass.,
Phillips, Geo. W., Pa.,
Pickard, J. L., Iowa.,
Potter, B. S., Pa.,
Purnell, Wm. H., Del.

NAMES ENROLLED AT PHILADELPHIA, ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

A.

Aborn, Frank. Ohio,
Allen, Wm. H., Pa.,
Ames, Chas. H., Mass.,

Arter, Miss Julia C., Pa.,
Avery, E. M., Ohio.

B.

Baer, S. A., Pa.,
Bancroft, Miss Jane M., Ill.,
Barber, Theodore M., Pa.,
Bardwell, F. N., N. Y.,
Barnard, Henry, Conn.,
Barringer, Wm. N., N. J.,
Bartch, G. W., Pa.,
Bartine, D. W., Pa.,
Bell, W. A., Ind.,
Berlin, A. H., Pa.,
Bibb, Miss Grace C., Mo.,
Bierman, E. Benj., Pa.,

Bingham, Rodolphus, N. J.,
Bird, Jno. P., Wis.,
Boal, William M., Pa.,
Boice, Miss M. Frances, Pa.,
Brooks, Edward, Pa.,
Brown, Geo. P., Ind.,
Buckwelder, M. E., Pa.,
Buehrle, R. K., Pa.,
Bugbee, H. K., N. J.,
Burritt, Miss Ruth R., Pa.,
Burt, Miss Delia B., Pa.,
Burton, Miss Elizabeth, N. J.

C.

Cadwalader, Chas. E., Pa.,
Calkins, N. A., N. Y.,
Camp, D. N., Conn.,
Carothers, R. H., Pa.,
Clinton, Henry C., Pa.,
Colegrove, W., W. Va.,
Collins, Miss Emma C., N. J.,
Cope, Miss Lucy, Pa.,

Corey, L. B., N. Y.,
Corliss, A. B., Vt.,
Cornell, Watson, Pa.,
Cornman, S. M., Pa.,
Coughlin, Jas. M., Pa.,
Coy, E. W., Ohio.,
Cressman, Philip, Pa.,
Culin, Miss Emma, N. J.

D.

Danenhower, Joseph W., Pa.,
Danforth, Edward, N. Y.,

Detweiler, David B., Pa.,
Dowell, Greenville, D. C.

E.

Eastburn, George, Pa.,
Eaton, John, D. C.,
Eisenhower, A. D., Pa.,
Eldridge, Miss Debbie J., N. J.,

Elliott, Miss Nancy, N. Y.,
Ensign, Miss Laura, Pa.,
Epright, Miss Hannah, Pa.

F.

Fell, Miss Sarah M., Del.,
Fetter, Geo. W., Pa.,
Fowsmith, Wm., Pa.,
Field, Miss Nancy R., N. J.,
Flint, A. P., Pa.,

Foose, L. O., Pa.,
Fothergill, Miss Ann, Del.,
Franklin, Benj., Pa.,
French, O. E., Pa.

G.

Gammell, A. M., R. I.,
Garner, Miss Mary F., Pa.,
Garnett, Jas. M., Md.,
Gawthrop, Miss Mary T., Pa.,
Gilbert, Miss Sallie H., Pa.,
Gilchrist, Jas. C., Iowa.,

Gilchrist, Miss Mande, Iowa.,
Gotwals, J. K., Pa.,
Gratz, Simon, Pa.,
Gross, D. W., Pa.,
Groves, Jno. R., Pa.

Richards, Z. D. C.,
Rickoff, A. J., Ohio.,

Sanford, Miss Maria L., Pa.,
Scharf, Wm. P., Pa.,
Schlichter, J., Warren, Pa.,
Schrader, Miss Caroline H., Pa.,
Seal, W. T., Pa.,
Sensenig, D. M., Pa.,
Shattuck, Geo. H., N. Y.,
Shaub, B. F., Pa.,
Sheldon, W. E., Mass.,
Shelley, W. H., Pa.,
Shippen, Edward, Pa.,
Shoemaker, Miss Annie, Pa.,
Shoemaker, J. W., Pa.,

Tappan, Eli T., Ohio,
Taylor, Franklin, Pa.,
Thompson, L. S., Ind.,

Van Aiken, Mrs. Georgiana, N. Y.

Wade, A. L., W. Va.,
Waller, D. J., Jr., Pa.,
Weekes, Kate, N. J.,
White, E. E., Ind.,
White, Jacob C., Jr., Pa.,
Whittington, H. B., Pa.,
Wickersham, J. P., Pa.,
Wickersham, Mrs. J. P., Pa.,

R.

Roney, Joseph, Pa.,
Roper, J. H., Fla.

S.

Singer, Chas. A., Pa.,
Singer, Edgar A., Pa.,
Smith, Edward, N. J.,
Sorin, Miss Elizabeth A., Iowa,
Spayd, H. H., Pa.,
Spring, Edward A., N. J.,
Steele, J. Dorman, N. Y.,
Stewart, Miss Charlotte A., Ohio,
Stone, Mrs. M. A., Conn.,
Stout, Geo. H., Pa.,
Supplee, A. P., Pa.,
Sypher, J. R., Pa.

T.

Traske, Mrs. H. K., N. J.,
Turner, Miss Alice W., Pa.,
Turner, Robert, Pa.

V.

W.

Wicks, M. B., Pa.,
Williams, Albert B., Pa.,
Willson, Marcius, N. J.,
Wilson, J. Ormond, D. C.,
Worrell, Miss Emma, Del.,
Wright, Silas, Pa.,
Wylie, T. A., Ind.

SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF MEMBERS FOR 1879.

After the close of the meeting of the Association in Philadelphia, the Secretary, in view of the fact that the receipts for membership had not been so large as was expected, not being sufficient to meet even the deficiency in the publication of the Louisville proceedings, thus leaving nothing for printing of the Philadelphia proceedings, appealed to prominent educators and teachers to enrol themselves in the list of members for 1879.

The appeal was made by means of 400 postal cards and by editorial notices in the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, the *New-England Journal of Education*, and the *Educational Weekly*. It is hoped that all those who responded to the call will be amply rewarded by the reading of this volume. The following is the result of the appeal. It should, however, be stated that the name of the Hon. W. H. H. Beadle was sent before the meeting in Philadelphia.

ARRANGED BY STATES.

CALIFORNIA.

Ezra S. Carr, Pasadena,

John Swett, 1419 Taylor Street, San Francisco.

CONNECTICUT.

Geo. R. Burton, 555 Howard Ave., B. G. Northrop, Clinton.
New Haven,

DAKOTA.

W. H. H. Beadle, Yankton.

ILLINOIS.

James P. Slade, Springfield.

INDIANA.

W. S. Almond, Vernon,
J. A. Beattie, Bedford,
S. E. Miller, Michigan City,

H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis,
Wm. H. Wiley, Terre Haute.

IOWA.

H. L. Grant, Waverly,
H. W. Myers, Creston,

C. P. Rogers, Marshalltown.

KANSAS.

R. B. Welsh, Emporia.

KENTUCKY.

Samuel P. Lucy, Midway,
A. W. Mell, Glasgow,

Wm. S. Wood, Covington.

LOUISIANA.

Robert M. Lusher, Box 2028, New
Orleans.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Thos. W. Bicknell, Boston, A. P. Stone, Springfield.
A. P. Marble, Worcester,

MICHIGAN.

Wm. H. Payne, Ann Arbor.

MINNESOTA.

Chas. Y. Lacy, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

E. R. Booth, Kirkwood.

MONTANA.

W. Egbert Smith, Butte City.

NEW MEXICO.

W. G. Ritch, Santa Fe.

NEW YORK.

Neil Gilmour, Albany.

OHIO.

Miss Eva J. Brand, Bellaire,	J. B. Irvin, Dayton,
L. D. Brown, Hamilton,	E. A. Jones, Massillon,
J. J. Burns, Columbus,	John C. Kinney, Norwalk,
M. S. Campbell, Youngstown,	J. H. Lehman, Canton,
Mrs. Sadie J. Cannon, Bellaire,	H. N. Mertz, Steubenville,
I. M. Clemens, Madison,	John Ogden, Worthington,
E. H. Cook, Columbus,	T. A. Pollok, Miamisburgh,
S. F. De Ford, Ottawa,	A. J. Rickoff,* Cleveland,
W. H. Dressler, Alliance,	Chas. R. Shreve, Martin's Ferry,
Bettie Dutton, 94 State St., Cleveland,	A. B. Stutzman, Kent,
Alston Ellis, Columbus,	F. H. Umholtz, Leetonia,
J. A. Gardner, Fredericksburgh,	Hamilton Wallace, Canal Dover.

PENNSYLVANIA.

J. A. Cooper, Edinboro, M. Gantz, New Castle.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Willard Richardson, Winsboro.

TENNESSEE.

Edward S. Joynes, Knoxville.

WISCONSIN.

T. C. Richmond, Monticello.

* A life-member.

ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

A.

Almond, W. S., Ind.

B.

Beadle, W. H. H., Dakota,
Beattie, J. A., Ind.,
Bicknell, Thos. W., Mass.,
Booth, E. R., Mo.,

Brand, Miss Eva J., Ohio,
Brown, L. D., Ohio,
Burns, J. J., Ohio,
Burton, Geo. R., Conn.

C.

Campbell, M. S., Ohio,
Cannon, Mrs. Sadie J., Ohio,
Carr, Ezra S., Cal.,

Clemens, I. M., Ohio,
Cook, E. H., Ohio,
Cooper, J. A., Pa.

D.

De Ford, S. F., Ohio,
Dressler, W. H., Ohio,

Dutton, Bettie, Ohio.

E.

Ellis, Alston, Ohio.

G.

Gantz, M., Pa.,
Gardner, J. A., Ohio,

Gilmour, Neil, N. Y.,
Grant, H. L., Iowa.

I.

Irvin, J. B., Ohio.

J.

Jones, E. A., Ohio,

Joynes, Ed. S., Tenn.

K.

Kinney, John C., Ohio.

L.

Lacy, Chas. Y., Minn.,
Lehman, J. H., Ohio,

Lucy, Samuel P., Ky.,
Lusher, R. M., La.

M.

Marble, A. P., Mass.,
Mell, A. W., Ky.,
Mertz, H. N., Ohio,

Miller, S. E., Ind.,
Myers, H. W., Iowa.

N.

Northrop, B. G., Conn.

O.

Ogden, John, Ohio.

P.

Payne, Wm. H., Mich.,

Pollok, T. A., Ohio.

Richardson, Willard, S. C.,
Richmond, T. C., Wis.,
Rickoff, A. J., Ohio,

Shreve, Chas. R., Ohio,
Slade, Jas. P., Ill.,
Smith, W. Egbert, Montana,

Tarbell, H. S., Ind.

Umholtz, F. H., Ohio.

Wallace, Hamilton, Ohio,
Welsh, R. B., Kansas,

R.

Ritch, W. G., New Mexico,
Rogers, C. P., Iowa.

S.

Stone, A. P., Mass.,
Stutzman, A. B., Ohio,
Swett, John, Cal.

T.

U.

W.

Wiley, W. H., Ind.,
Wood, Wm. S., Ky.

NEW LIFE-DIRECTORSHIP.

The following letter although dated in September was not sent until Dec. 9, and was received Dec. 10, 1879, a few hours too late to allow printing on p. 217, the Philadelphia Teachers' Institute in the list of Life Directors.

PHILADELPHIA, September 13, 1879.

Mr. W: D. Henkle, Secretary National Educational Association.

DEAR SIR:—The local committee, composed of members of the Teachers' Institute, the Board of Education, the Permanent Exhibition Company, and teachers of private schools, having completed the pleasing duties imposed upon it in making preparations for the annual meeting of the National Educational Association in this city, and for the accommodation, the convenience, and the pleasure of all visiting members and friends of the Association, desires to make known through you, the general results of its efforts and to indicate the means by which it has been enabled to extend the courtesies of hospitality to the Association, and to aid substantially the cause in which it is engaged.

Through properly-directed efforts of sub-committees and the kindness of the Board of Education, convenient and commodious halls and rooms were secured for the general business sessions of the Association, free of cost. Through the influence of the Finance Committee and the liberality of the following publication and manufacturing houses, the rent of the Academy of Music for an evening lecture, and all necessary and incidental expenses were defrayed:—

J. H. Butler & Co.,.....	\$100 00
Cowperthwait & Co.,.....	100 00
Sower, Potts & Co.,.....	85 00
Eldredge & Bro.,.....	50 00
J. B. Lippincott & Co.,.....	50 00
Porter, Coates & Co.,.....	50 00
Harper Bros.,.....	50 00
Potter, Ainsworth & Co.,.....	50 00
Keystone Furniture Co.,.....	30 00
D. Appleton & Co.,.....	25 00
Ginn & Heath,.....	10 00
Davis, Bardeen & Co.,.....	10 00
Total,.....	<u>\$610 00</u>

After the payment of all debts incurred and the settlement of all claims arising, there remained an unexpended balance of eighty-five dollars. Desiring that the money contributed should be devoted according to the wishes of those by whom it was so cheerfully given, the committee adopted a resolution requesting the Teachers' Institute to accept the balance named, provided it would appropriate from its funds an amount sufficient to increase the sum to one hundred dollars, and that it would invest this total amount in a life-directorship in the National Educational Association.

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J. B. Lippincott & Co.,	50 00
Porter, Coates & Co.,	50 00
Harper Bros.,	50 00
Potter, Ainsworth & Co.,	50 00
Keystone	50 00
D. A. Co.,	50 00
Ginn	50 00
Davis	50 00



tion, and to be represented therein by a member duly qualified and elected annually.

The Board of Managers of the Institute subsequently appropriated the required balance, amended its By-Laws to provide for the annual election of a representative to the Association, and instructed its committee on Library to purchase for the use of its members, a full and complete set of the reports of the Association from the date of its organization in Philadelphia, 1857, to the present time.

I have the honor to be yours most respectfully,

EDGAR A. SINGER,

Chairman Joint Local Committee.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Proceedings for 1879.

OLD BOARD.

The Board met at 8 P. M. July 28, 1879, in one of the parlors of the Continental Hotel, Philadelphia, Pa. There were present JOHN HANCOCK, President; W. D. HENKLE, Secretary; J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer; J. P. WICKERSHAM, W. F. PHELPS, J. L. PICKARD, G. P. BROWN, T. M. MARSHALL, E. T. TAPPAN, ALEX. HOGG, and M. A. NEWELL.

The Secretary and Treasurer made their reports which were referred to an Auditing Committee consisting of E. T. TAPPAN, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and T. M. MARSHALL.

At the request of E. T. TAPPAN permission was granted to read in the Department of Higher Instruction, the paper of C. K. ADAMS, LL. D., he being unavoidably absent.

At the request of W. F. PHELPS the same permission was granted in reference to the paper of the Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, to be read in the General Association.

W. F. PHELPS introduced the subject of memberships, urging that every thing possible should be done to increase the membership list. At the request of the President (JOHN HANCOCK) Mr. EDGAR A. SINGER, of the Local Committee made a statement of what had been done by the various city institutions in favor of members.

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., also of the Local Committee, made a statement as to the rooms that had been assigned for the meetings of the General Association and the various Departments.

A statement was made that several of the persons who had enrolled as life-members at Baltimore and Louisville had not yet paid their fees. The general expression was that such names should be dropped from the published list of life-members.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS, J. P. WICKERSHAM, M. A. NEWELL, and J. ORMOND WILSON, were appointed a committee to secure from Congress an Act of Incorporation of the Association.

Adjourned.

At a subsequent time the Board met but transacted no business except to hear the report of the Auditing Committee, the report being that the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer were found to be correct.

NEW BOARD.

The New Board met on call of the President elect, J. ORMOND WILSON, at the Normal-School Building, at 8½ A. M., July 31, 1879.

In view of the fact that Prof. ALEX. HOGG's paper had been crowded out of its place in the Department of Industrial Education, the Board on motion recommended President HANCOCK to provide a place for it in the General Association.

The following communication was received from Dr. F. A. MARCH, President of the Spelling-Reform Association, which had met as a Department of this Association.

TO THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, Secretary,

SIR:—At the last session of the Spelling-Reform Association it was resolved:

"That the National Educational Association be requested to use amended spelling in the printed volumes of its Transactions and other documents."

The President of the Spelling-Reform Association was requested to accompany this resolution with a statement of the different stages of amended spelling in use in other Associations.

1. The American Philological Association and the English Phil. Association print each paper with such reformed spelling as the writer chooses to use in accordance with the general rules of change recognized by the Associations.

2. The American Phil. Association recommends as the beginning of change the amended spelling of eleven words, as follows:—*Tho, Thru, gard, catalog, ar, giv, hav, liv, definit, infinit, wisht.*

3. The Spelling-Reform Association has selected three of these for a still simpler beginning: *giv, hav, liv.*

4. The Spelling-Reform Association urges the adoption of *five rules* which simplify the spelling of many words.

5. The alphabet of the Spelling-Reform Association and the Phil. Association may be used throughout. The State Teachers' Association of Missouri print their Proceedings in this way this year.

The use of amended spelling in some form in the Transactions of learned societies is one of the modes of introducing it which scholars look to with the greatest confidence. The American Institute of Instruction admitted it into the last volume of its Proceedings.

Will you be so kind as to communicate this to the National Educational Association in convention, or to its Executive Committee, as may be proper?

For the Spelling-Reform Association.

F. A. MARCH, President.

For want of time to consider this communication on motion of W. F. PHELPS, its consideration was deferred until the next meeting.

Adjourned to meet at Centennial Building at 4 P. M.

Board met at 1 P. M. at the Normal-School Building, fearing a meeting could not be secured at the Centennial Building.

W: F. PHELPS presented an invitation from the Chautauqua Assembly to hold the next meeting at Lake Chautauqua.

On motion of E. E. WHITE the invitation was accepted provided railway, hotel, and other arrangements can be made satisfactory to the Executive Committee.

On motion of JOHN HANCOCK, EDWARD DANFORTH, of Elmira, N. Y., was appointed a committee on transportation.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN a preference was expressed for the second Tuesday in July as the time for the opening of the next meeting.

On motion of E. E. WHITE it was decided to continue the next meeting four days, morning and evening, and to give one afternoon to each Department for the purpose of making the exercises of that afternoon especially prominent.

So much time having been consumed in discussing the place of the next meeting and the manner of arranging for it to make it a success, the Board adjourned before reaching the consideration of Dr. MARCH's communication, and other points that the Secretary intended to present.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

1879.		Dr.
July 29.	To Membership Fees, 1877.....	\$294 00
" "	" Life Membership Fees, 1877.....	133 00
" "	" Volumes of Proceedings sold,.....	361 35
" "	" Amount received from other sources.....	78 00
		866 35

CONTRA.

1879.		Cr.
July 29.	By Cash paid W. D. HENKLE on account of Publication Committee, 1876.....	\$246 50
" "	" Expressage,.....	4 36
" "	" Miscellaneous expenses.....	2 00
" "	" Cash paid W. D. HENKLE, for miscellaneous expenses and on account of Publication Com., 1877,.....	613 49
		\$866.35

J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

STATEMENT

In Detail of Amounts Received by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the National Educational Association.

1878.	Annual Membership Fees at Louisville.....	\$284 00
	Life Membership Fees at Louisville.....	30 00
	Donation, Louisville Teachers.....	60 00
Aug. 24,	B. B. Huntoon, Annual membership, 1877.....	2 00
Sept. 1,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, to L. G. Marshall.....	2 00

Treasurer's Report.

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Sept. 4,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1875, to S. T. Lowry.....	1 50
Sept. 4,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1872, '73, '74, '75, '76, each, Wm. J. C. Dulany & Co., Baltimore, Md.....	8 25
Sept. 7,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, '70, '71, '72, '73, each to T. M. Marshall, Glenville, W. Va.,	9 25
Sept. 13,	Mrs. Laura Adams, Annual Membership, 1877.....	2 00
Sept. 22,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1871, to S. R. Thompson, ...	1 50
Sept. 26,	6 Vols. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, 50c each, E. T. Tappan,.....	3 00
Sept. 27,	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1860, '66, S. R. Thompson,.....	1 00
Oct. 1,	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65' 66, 1 copy 1870, '71, '72, '73, 2 copies '74, '75, '76 to Robt. Curry, Esq., Peru, Neb.....	25 25
Oct. 9,	Life Membership Fee, James H. Smart,.....	20 00
Dec. 19,	E. R. Booth, Annual Membership, 1877,.....	2 00
Dec. 19,	6 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.....	7 25
1879.		
Jan. 18,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, '70, '71, '72, '73, 74, '75, 76, to E. C. Hewitt, Normal, Illinois,	14 25
Feb. 13,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1877, W. J. Corthell, Augusta, Me.,	2 00
Feb. 15,	2 Vols. Proceedings 1877, Board of Education D. C.....	4 00
Feb. 18,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1874, Rev. H. A. Thompson, West- erville, Ohio.....	1 50
May 13,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1877, Pres. N. Porter, Yale College,	2 00
June 14,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1877, W. H. & O. H. Morrison, Washington,.....	2 00
Aug. 11,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1876, Wm. J. Russell, Cornell Uni- versity, Ithaca, N. Y.....	2 00
Aug. 23,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1860, Chas. O. Thompson, Worces- ter, Mass.....	50
Oct. 23,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1875, '76, '77 each.....	5 50
Nov. 26,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1858, '59, '60, '65, '66, '72, '73, S. H. White, Peoria, Illinois.....	7 00
Apr. 1,	1 Vol. Proceedings, each 1872-'73, A. A. Waters, West Virginia University.....	3 25
Total,.....		503 00

*Statement in Detail of Payments made by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the
National Educational Association.*

Amount paid W. D. Henkle, publication, 1876,.....	\$246 50—voucher No. 1.	
Expressage.....	1 30—	" " 2.
Copying President Porter's Address.....	2 00—	" " 3.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	124 20—	" " 4
Paid Expressage,.....	3 06—	" " 5.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	50 00—	" " 6.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	57 00—	" " 7.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	18 94—	" " 8.
Total.....	503 00—	503 00

VOLUMES OF PROCEEDINGS UNSOLD,

IN THE CUSTODY OF THE TREASURER.

Proceedings of				Price per volume, \$	
1858,	15	volumes.....			.50
"	"	1859, 17	"	" " "	.50
"	"	1860, 4	"	" " "	.50
"	"	1863, 21	"	" " "	.50
"	"	1865, 120	"	" " "	.50
"	"	1866, 125	"	" " "	.50
"	"	1872, 37	"	" " "	1.75
"	"	1873, 205	"	" " "	1.50
"	"	1874, 420	"	" " "	1.50
"	"	1875, 33	"	" " "	1.50
"	"	1876, 420	"	" " "	2.00
"	"	1877, 426	"	" " "	2.00

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE.

The undersigned have examined the foregoing account of the Treasurer of the National Educational Association, with the vouchers therefor, and find the same to be correct, and a balance of \$429.62 to be due W. D. Henkle on account of Publication Committee, 1877.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,
Auditing Committee.

July 29, 1879.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN ACCOUNT WITH
W: D. HENKLE, SECRETARY, ACTING AS CHAIRMAN OF
PUBLICATION COMMITTEE.

	<i>Dr.</i>
To printing 1024 copies of Louisville Proceedings.....	\$779.92
" binding " " " " " " ".....	153.60
" fly-leaf paper inserted by binder.....	6.00
Total cost of printing and binding.....	\$939.52
To expressage on paper from Sandusky.....	\$.55
" 4 large boxes for shipping sheets to binder.....	2.50
" strap iron to secure boxes.....	.53
" drayage to station at Salem, 1500 lbs.....	1.50
" freight and drayage paid at Columbus, Ohio, by Siebert and Lilly.	6.35
" charge of binder for putting up 7 express packages.....	1.75
" " " " " box and drayage, Dec. 22, 1877.....	.90
" " " " " " " Feb. 19, 1879.....	1.40
Total incidental expenses relating to proceedings.....	\$15.48
Total cost of printing, binding, and shipping volumes, etc.....	\$955.00

Audited and approved July 28, 1879,
Philadelphia, Pa.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,
Auditing Committee.

Calendar of Meetings.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

Organized.

1858.—*CINCINNATI, OHIO.*

RICHARDS, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, A. J. RICKOFF, *Treas.*

1859.—*WASHINGTON, D. C.*

RICKOFF, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, C. S. PENNELL, *Treas.*

1860.—*BUFFALO, N. Y.*

BULKLEY, *Pres.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1861.—*No Session.*

1862.—*No Session.*

1863.—*CHICAGO, ILL.*

PHILBRICK, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1864.—*OGDENSBURG, N. Y.*

WELLS, *Pres.*, DAVID N. CAMP, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1865.—*HARRISBURG, PA.*

GREENE, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1866.—*INDIANAPOLIS, IND.*

WICKERSHAM, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, S. P. BATES, *Treas.*

1867.—*No Session.*

1868.—*NASHVILLE, TENN.*

GREGORY, *Pres.*, L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Sec.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Treas.*

1869.—*TRENTON, N. J.*

VAN BOKKELEN, *Pres.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, A. L. BARBER, *Treas.*

1870.—*CLEVELAND, OHIO.*

HAGAR, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—*ST. LOUIS, MO.*

PICKARD, *Pres.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1872.—*BOSTON, MASS.*

WHITE, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1873.—*ELMIRA, N. Y.*

NORTHROP, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1874.—*DETROIT, MICH.*

WHITE, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1875.—*MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.*

T. HARRIS, *Pres.*, W. R. ABBOT, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1876.—*BALTIMORE, MD.*

F. PHELPS, *Pres.*, W. D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1877.—*LOUISVILLE, KY.*

A. NEWELL, *Pres.*, W. D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

1878.—*No Session.*

1879.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

JOHN HANCOCK, *Pres.*, W. D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN ACCOUNT WITH
W: D. HENKLE, SECRETARY.

		<i>Dr.</i>
Sept. 22, 1877.	To expense on Henderson's draft.....	\$.15
Jan. 11, 1878.	" 250 letter-paper sheets.....	.87
" " "	" 250 envelopes, white.....	.75
" " "	" printing 250 letter sheets with officers' names, etc.....	3.00
" " "	" " envelopes.....	.75
" " "	" postage on above sent to officers.....	.66
Aug. 16, "	" cash paid W: F. PHELPS for postage on memorials.	3.00
" " "	" " " " " " " " printing 200 "	3.50
" " "	" " " " " " " " 50 postal cards.....	1.25
" " "	" cash paid W: F. PHELPS for printing 150 large memorials.....	4.50
Oct. 14, "	" expense of RUFFNER's order.....	.10
March 17, 1879.	To printing 250 letter heads with officers' names..	\$ 3.87
" " "	" " 275 envelopes.....	2.25
" " "	" " programs, 1st edition.....	5.00
July 7, 1879.	" " " 2d " (2500).....	7.00
" 23, "	" " " 3d " (5000).....	20.00
" 23, "	" " 100 postal cards railway service.....	1.75
" 23, "	" " 1500 2-color membership cards.....	12.00
" 7, & 23, "	" expressage on programs (1000) each time.....	1.00
	" 500 envelopes for programs.....	0.75
	" postage on programs, etc.....	8.65
	" letters written (71) postage on same.....	2.13
	" postal cards written.....	2.23
	" railway orders.....	1.25
	" box for programs.....	0.10
	" expressage on box of programs and tickets to Philadelphia.....	1.50
		88.11

Audited and approved July 28th, 1879,
Philadelphia, Pa.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,
Auditing Committee.

Calendar of Meetings.

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1860.—*BUFFALO, N. Y.*

J. W. BULKLEY, *Pres.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1861.—*No Session.*

1862.—*No Session.*

1863.—*CHICAGO, ILL.*

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1864.—*OGDENSBURG, N. Y.*

W: H. WELLS, *Pres.*, DAVID N. CAMP, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1865.—*HARRISBURG, PA.*

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1867.—*No Session.*

1868.—*NASHVILLE, TENN.*

J. M. GREGORY, *Pres.*, L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Sec.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Treas.*

1869.—*TRENTON, N. J.*

L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Pres.*, W: E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, A. L. BARBER, *Treas.*

1870.—*CLEVELAND, OHIO.*

D. B. HAGAR, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, W: E. CROSBY, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

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W: T. HARRIS, *Pres.*, W: R. ABBOT, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1876.—*BALTIMORE, MD.*

W: F. PHELPS, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1877.—*LOUISVILLE, KY.*

M. A. NEWELL, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

1878.—*No Session.*

1879.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

JOHN HANCOCK, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

OFFICERS FOR 1879-80.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C.,	-	President.
JAS. H. SMART, Indianapolis Ind.,	-	First Vice-President.
W: D. HENKLE, Salem, Ohio,	-	Secretary.
ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, Ohio,	- - -	Treasurer.

[For Vice-Presidents, and Counsellors, see page 56.]

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, Ohio,	-	President.
LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind.,	-	Vice-President.
E. B: BIERMAN, Annville, Pa.,	-	Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

J. C. GILCHRIST, Cedar Falls, Iowa,	-	President.
EDWIN C. HEWETT, Normal, Ill.,	-	Vice-President.
G: W. FETTER, Philadelphia, Pa.	- - -	Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

JAS. H. SMART, Indianapolis Ind.,	-	President.
MISS SUSAN E. BLOW, St. Louis Mo.	-	Vice-President.
MISS LELIA E. PATRIDGE, Philadelphia, Pa.,	-	Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

E. E. WHITE, Lafayette, Ind.,	-	President.
ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas,	-	Vice-President.
H: B. WHITTINGTON, 1320 Jackson St., Philadelphia, Pa.,	- - -	Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

M. A. NEWELL, Baltimore, Md.,	-	President.
N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y.,	-	Vice-President.
S. A. BAER, Berks Co., Pa.,	-	Secretary.

COMMITTEE ON TRANSPORTATION.

EDWARD DANFORTH, Elmira, N. Y.

SPELING REFÖRM ASOSHIASHUN.

Fürst Da'z Proçedings, Jüly 29, 1879.

Thè Speling Reförm Asoshiashun met az a Depårtment ov thè Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun, in thè Preçeptor's Rüm ov thè Gurl's Nörmal Scül Bilding, Philadelphia, at 3 o'clock P. M.

Thè President, Francis A. Mürch, LL. D., ov Lafayette Coleg, Easton, Pa., cöld thè Asoshiashun tu öder. In thè absenc ov thè Secreteri, J. W. Walk, M. D., ov Philadelphia, wöz chözen Secreteri *pro tem*. A paper wöz then red on Thè Present Stat ov thè Speling Reförm in America, bi thè President ov thè Asoshiashun. Hè sed:

Thè müvment för thè reförm ov Engglish speling is a product ov thè spirit ov thè ag, a trü bürth ov tîm, az Bacon liks tu cöl hie filosofi. Thè grat cürents ov thöt and acshun set töardz reförm. Wè är för reforming everifhing that can help us in thè discoveri ov trüth and thè imprüvment ov man's estat.

Givn a spokn langwäg, thè tæi cömunicashun ov it bi riting and printing is a problem in labor-saving mashîneri. But thär is so much that is complex and supürfluous in our present speling that hundredz ov milyuns ov dolars är wasted bi it in our printing ofîces everi yër.

Our tæcherz sè that tu ör thre yërz ov thè scül-lîf ov everi child är wörs than wasted in trîng tu lörn tu spel.

Our statsmen sè that wè hav 5,500,000 iliterats in thè United Stats, and that wun ov thè möst pauerful cözez ov our iliteraci is thè badnes ov our speling.

Our scolars fînd thär studië ov langwäg embarast at everi turn bi our hwimeical and unmanagabl alfabet. Etimological and sientific trüth in regärd tu thè histori and löz ov thè Engglish langwäg är berid under pîlz ov rubish mauntin-hî.

Out ov öl thez cözez ov reförm sprang our Speling Reförm Asoshiashun. It wöz örganizd in our çentenial yër, 1876, at an Internashunal Cönvenshun för thè Amendement ov Engglish Örthög-rafi, held in Philadelphia.

Thè anüal mëting in 1877 wöz held at Baltimöre, in cönceshun with thè mëting ov thè American Filölogical Asoshiashun. This grat bödi ov scolars had öldredi exprest its interest in thè reförm, and appointed a cömiti tu repört upen it. Thè Speling Reförm Asoshiashun adopted thär repört. It gav in substanc thè alfabet ov thè fütür and several sugeschunz about thè best wa tu rëch it.

Thè anüal mëting in 1878 wöz held in thè White Mountains, in cönceshun with thè American Institüte ov Instrucshun, hwich gav a favorabl hëring tu thè advocats ov thè reförm.

And nau wè finish our thürd yër bi this mëting az a Depårtment ov thè Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun. Hwot hav wè dun? Hau du wè fînd ourselvz?

The first thing we undertuk tu dā wəz tu exçit and cōncētrat disatisfacshun with the old speling. In this thar has bin mōr dun than we hopt. We hav the cōncūring voicēz ov the grat ōfhoritiz in filologi, in edūcāshun and statsmanship, clēr and strōng, bōth in America and Enggland.

Prof. Max Müller, ov the Univērsity ov Oxford, the hed ov ōl things amung the filologists ov Enggland, sez: The cweschun, then, that wil hav tu bē anserd sūner or later iz this: "Can this unsistematic sistēm ov speling Engglish bē aloud tu gō on forever?" Iz everi Engglish child, az compard with uther children, tu bē mulct in tū or thrē yēz ov his life in ōrder tu lōrn it? Or the lōer clāsez tu gō thrū scul without lōrning tu rēd and rīt thār on langwaj intelligenli? And iz the cuntri tu pa milyunz everi yēr fōr this uter falūr ov nashunal edūcāshun? I dā not belēv or thīnk that such a stat ov things wil bē aloud tu gō on forever, particulārlī az a remedi iz at hand. I consider that the sūner it iz takn in hand the beter. Thar iz a mōtiv pauer behind thez fonetic rēfōrmēz which Archbishop Trench has hārdli takn intu acount. I mēn the mizeri endūrd bi milyunz ov children at scūlz, hū mīt lōrn in wun yēr, and with rēal advantaj tu themselvz, hwet the nau recwīr fōr or fiv yēz tu lōrn, and seldum succēd in lōrning, after ōl.

Prof. Whitney sez: We ār, then, clērli ov opinyun that a fonetic orthograft iz ov itself in ōl respects deajrabl, and that thar iz nō gud rēen agenst introdūcing it, sav the incōnvēnyenç ov sō grat a chang. Everi thēoretical and practical considerashun maks in its favor.

And hwen Prof. Whitney and Prof. Max Müller agrē, hū shall sa them na?

Dr. Morris, lecturer on English in King's Colej, London, hū ragks amung the first Engglish scolārz, sez: The nūmerus incōnsistēnciz in our ūs ov the letēz ov the alfabet mak our orthograft a līng spirit tu deçev thōz hū ūz it; and we sēm wiling tu līs tu its voic. Wun object ov edūcāshun iz tu tran the ōbzūrvīng pauēz ov a child, and tu tēch it tu rēen from the facts that cum within the rang ov its expērienç. Our alfabet, with ōl its glōrius unçōrtintiz, ōnli tendz tu mislēd and deçev the ōbzūrvīng pauēz. From the ritn simbol the child ot tu bē abl tu dedūç the proper saundz; but hwen wun simbol reprēzents thrē or fōr saundz, and the sēm saund iz reprēzented bi fōm fiv tu twelv, or ēvn mōr, diferent simbōlz, hau iz a child tu get enī help toard the saund from ōbzūrvīng the simbol? It iz sed that ōnli fifti wōrds in Engglish ār ritn az the ār pronaunçt (ār pronaunçt in acōrdanç with the namz ov thār letēz), sō that the i iz the ōrgan ūzēd (az in Chīnezē) in lōrning tu rēd.

Bishop Thirlwall, the illustrius ōfhor ov the "Histori ov Grēçez," sez: I luk upon the establisht sistēm ov speling (if an accidental custum ma bē sō cōld) az a mas ov anomaliz, the grōth ov ignoranç and chang, ēcwali repugnant tu gud tast and cōmun sens. But I am awār that the public cling tu thez anomaliz with a tenaçiti propōrshunal tu thār absōrditi, and ār jelus ov ōl encrōchment on ground consecrated bi prescripshun tu the frē pla ov blīnd capriç.

Lōrd Lytton sez: A mōr līng, raundabout, puzl-heded delūzhun than that bi hwich we cōfūz the clēr instīgts ov trūth in our

acursed sistem ov speling woz never concected bi the fäther ov fêlshud. Hau can a sistem ov edücashun flourish that beginz bi so menstrus a fêlshud, hwich the sens ov hêring sufizez tu contradict?

Prof. Hadley sez: It canot bē denjd that the English langwaj is shocingli speld.

Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull sez: The populär mind sēma awak az never beför tu aprēshiashun ov the difficultiz, ecçentricitiz, and absürditiz ov the prezēt standard-English cacografi.

För statsmen, thär är Charles Sumner, John Stuart Mill, W. E. Gladstone, and the lik.

Sumner sez: The English langwaj haz an imens fütür. But thär must bē härmoni betwēn the ritn and the spökn wörd. In helping this reförm yu är a benefactor. It is an imprüvment ov practical valü and much nēded.

John Stuart Mill sez: Thär is nō daut that a simplificashun ov English orthografi wud façilitat considerabli the task ov lürning tu red. A langwaj hwich, lik the Spanish ov the prezēt tīm, haz redüct its speling tu a pürfectli üniförm sistem haz a grat advantaj over uthers.

W. E. Gladstone sez: Thär is much that mjt bē dun with advantaj in the reförm ov speling az tu the English langwaj; but the man thing is that hwetever ma bē propöed shud bē propöed with the wat ov grat öfheriti tu bac it. It is not in mī pauer tu öfer tu giv eni tīm, under prezēt çircumstances, tu the undertaking hwich I recomēd and in hwich I shud gladli hav faund mīself abl tu join.

Sir C. E. Trevelyan, K. C. B., sez: The English sistem ov speling (I protest agenst its bëing cöld orthografi) is a labirinth, a caos, an absürditi, a disgraç tu aur ag and nashun.

Föm aur edücatörs wē önlī select Hon. Wm. T. Harris, LL. D. Hē sez: The irreguläritiz ov English speling är, az is wel-nön, the cöz ov a wjd depärtür on the pärt ov aur elementeri edücashun föm that ov uthir cuntries hwär English is net spökn. In Germany and Italy the child can corectli spel eni wörd hē hērs, ör pronouncē eni wörd hē sez, after hē becumz familiar with the pauers ov the leters ov hiz alfabet. Henc, the föriner spendz a veri smöl pörshun ov tīm in lürning hiz ön langwaj, hwil if hē wud lörn tu spel aur English langwaj corectli hē must giv yers ov studi tu it. And, hwet is wüerst ov öl, this studi is önlī an exerçiz ov the memori, and not a cultivashun ov the rēn ör ov the pauer tu thigk. Thär är fü general principls ör sugestiv analogiz tu lītē the bördn. The American child must spend a lārg pörshun ov his scul-daz lürning wun bi wun, the pecülyar combinashuns ov the ritn würdz ov hiz langwaj.

Dr. Temple, Bishop ov Exeter, förmerli hed master ov Rugby Scul, sez: I tak grat interest in the speling reförm that is propöed.

But wē can spök ov the filelogists and edücatörs in masea.

In England.—In 1876 the Nashunal Ünion ov Elementeri Tēchers, representing sum 10,000 tēchers in Enggland and Wales, past ölmöst ünanimusli, a rezölüşun in favor ov a reial cömishun tu incwip intu the subject ov English speling, with a vü ov reförming and simplifijng it. The scul börd för London tuk up the mater,

and ishüd a çürçular asking uthera tu ünît in an adres tu the Edüca-shun Depārtment in favor ev it. Thè Liverpool and Bradford Bōrda had acted befōr, and mōr than a hundred uther Bōrda retürnd favorabl repliā. On Tüesday, May 29, 1877, a cōnferenç wæs held in London, at hwich the Rev. A. H. Sayçe, profesor ev filologî, Òxford, preajd, and in hwich the president ev the Filolögical Soçieti, H. Swëet, Esq., and Viç President J. A. H. Murray, LL. D., and ex-president, tuk pārt, aa wel aa nūmerus digniteria ev Chürch and Stat, lëding scul mastera, and eminent refōrmera, including Mr. I. Pitman and Mr. Ellis. Tha spent a da and evning in harmō-nius discushun and in lising tu shōrt adrese, and adopted vigoros reasolüshuna, hwich tha apeinted a cōmiti tu preazent tu the Depārtment ev Edücashun. Thè Cōnvenshun wæs a grat succēs, and cōld fōrth sērius artīclā in Thè London Tīmea, fēlōd ev cōrs, hwen nēt preçedēd, bi artīclā in the hōl pēriodical pres ev Great Britain. Thè depütashuna watēd on the Lord-president ev the caunçil Janü-ary 18, 1878. Adrese, wūr mad bi Mr. Gladstone, Dr. R. Morris, Dr. Angus, Mr. Rathbone, M. P., Mr. Richarda, M. P., and Mr. A. J. Ellis, F. R. S. Thè Lord-president, the Düke ev Richmōnd and Gordon, in hiā repliā, spōk veri emfaticali ev the impōrtanç ev the subject. Hē sed: It is ev such vast impōrtanç and sō lārg extent that it wud nōt bē delt with in eni satisfactori wā uther than bi the Crown'a bëing adviēd tu ishü ā cōmishun tu incwīr intū the mater.

Thè American Filolögical Asoshiashun is the lārgest and mōst influēnschal bēdi ev filologists in America. Amung its memberz ār representativz ev mōr than wun hundred edücashunal institü-shuna, including 12 thēolögical semineria, 30 ünivērsitie and ölmōst everi coleg ev eni standing in the Ünited States. Thè adrese, ev its prezidents in favor ev this refōrm, and the repōrt ev its cōmiti on the basis on hwich the refōrm mūvment hæz bin örganizēd, hav bin reçēvd without opōzišun. Last yēr sum ev its lëding members stārtēd a memōrial tu Cōngres, prāing fōr the apōintment ev a Cōmishun on Speling Refōrm:

MEMORIAL.

Tu the Honorabl the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, in Congress asembled: This Memorial of the undersignd, members of the American Filolögical Asociation, and others, respectfully represents that it is curenly stated by leading educators that the irregular speling of the English language causes a los of two years of the school time of each child, and is a main cause of the alarming illiteracy of our peopl; that it involves an expens of hundreds of millions of dollars anually for teachers and for writing and printing superfluous leters, and that it is an obstacl in many other ways tu the progres of education among those speaking the English language, and tu the spred of the language among other nations.

It further represents that leading educators, among whom ar many teachers of much practical experiēce, and asociations of learned scholars declare it posibl tu reform our speling and hav proposed schemes of reform.

The prayer of your memorialists, therefore, is that your honorabl body may see fit tu apōint a Comishun tu examin and report how far such a reform is desirabl, and what amendmēts in orthograpy, if any, may be wisely introduct into the public documents and the schools of the District of Columbia, and açcepted in examinations for the Çivil Serviç, and whether it is expedient tu move the Government of Great Britain tu unite in constituting a joint Comiti tu consider such amendmēts.

And your memorialists, as in duty bound, wil ever pray, etc.

It wæs thōt that such a memōrial wæs a gud mēnē ev bringing out and cōncētrating opinyun. Thār is hārdli eni fōrst step mōr ēzi tu tak than tu sijn it. It wæs hēded bi the memberz ev the Cōmiti on Speling Refōrm, mōst ev them having bin prezidents ev the Asoshiashun.

The folowing ar the names ov the Comiti on Speling Reform: Francis A. March, Chairman, Lafayette College; William D. Whitney, Yale College; J. Hammond Trumbull, Yale College; Francis J. Child, Harvard College; S. S. Haldeman, University ov Pennsylvania. The folowing ar ex-Presidents ov the American Filological Association: Howard Crosby, President ov the University ov New York; W. W. Goodwin, Harvard College; A. Harkness, Brown University. It is also signd by filologists and professors in the folowing universitis and coleges: Bowdoin College, Maine; Dartmouth College, N. H.; Amherst College, Mass.; Andover Theological Seminary, Mass.; Harvard College, Mass.; Phillips Academy, Mass.; Williams College, Mass.; Brown University, R. I.; University Grammar School, R. I.; Trinity College, Conn.; Yale College, Conn.; Hopkins Grammar School, Conn.; Cornell University, N. Y.; Rochester Theological Seminary, N. Y.; University ov New York, N. Y.; Princeton College, N. J.; Franklin and Marshall College, Pa.; Lafayette College, Pa.; University ov Pennsylvania, Pa.; Haverford College, Pa.; Washington and Jefferson, Pa.; John Hopkins University, Md.; St. John's College, Md.; State University, Ohio; Wesleyan University, Ohio; Wooster University, Ohio; Illinois Industrial University, Illinois; Northwestern University, Illinois; Shurtleff College, Illinois; Adrian College, Mich.; Michigan University, Mich.; Iowa College, Iowa; Cornell College, Iowa; Lawrence University, Wis.; Central College, Mo.; Baptist Theological Seminary, Ky.; Logan Female Institute, Ky.; Vanderbilt University, Tenn.; East Tennessee University, Tenn.; University ov Virginia, Va.; University ov Alabama, Ala.; University ov Mississippi, Miss.; State Agricultural College, Oregon; Agricultural and Mechanical College, Texas; The U. S. Naval Observatory, Washington, etc., etc. About fifti leding coleges.

Thæz colegea, it shud bē nōtiçt, ār thōz interested in thē Filological Asoshiaſhun. Thē memoriāl haas not bin sent out tu colegea in general. In meni colegez thē profesora interested themselvz tu obtan uthr signatürz, and thē namz ov thē mōst activ and efishent presidents ov colegez—lik Dr. Creeby, ov New York, Chamberlin, ov Bowdoin, Chadbourne, ov Williams—apen on thē rōl.

Thē University ov Mississippi appointed a comiti tu consider thē proprieti ov üniting in thē memoriāl, thē charman ov hwich woz Prof. J. D. Johnson, LL. D., wel-nōn aa wun ov thē formōst Anglo-Saxon scolarz in thē Saufh. Tha mad an abl repōrt in favor ov acshun, hwich haa bin printed. But thē Industrial Üniversity ov Illinois semz tu bē thē baner institūshun. It is repōrted that thē hol ov its faculti and ōlmōst ōl ov its 300 stūdents ār in favor ov thē refōrm, and hav ōrganizd aa a Speling Refōrm Asoshiaſhun fōr imēdiat amendiment ov thar on speling and general mishneri wōrk.

Thē memoriāl woz brōt befōr thē American Institūte ov Instrucshun, hwich rezolvd tu ünīt in it. 10,000 tēchera wūr sed tu bē at thē mēting. Thē Dēpārtment ov Public Instrucshun ov thē çiti ov Çhicago tuk up thē mater, and its Bōrd ov Edūcashun ünanimusli adepte a rezolūshun: That thē Secreteri ov thē Bōrd cōrespond with thē prinçipal scūl bōrda and edūcashunal asoshiaſhuna ov thē cuntri, with a vū tu cō-operashun in thē refōrm ov English speling.

A çurçular leter woz açordingli ishūd, asking suçh Bōrda tu ünīt in thē memoriāl tu Cōngres, and it iz reçeiving meni favorabl responsea.

Dūring thē Crismas holidaz a lārg pārt ov thē tēchera and scūl ofiçera, and, indēd, ov ōl pūrsuna interested in edūcashun in this cuntri, had thar atenshun tūrnd tu thē speling refōrm. Thē Stat Tēchere' Asoshiaſhuna met in meni stata, and in thōz in hwich tha did not, thar wūr veri general mētingz ov caunti institūts or uthr smōler asoshiaſhuna. At thēz mētingz this yēr ōlmōst everihwār papera wūr red and discūshuna had on thiz refōrm. Thēz wūr repōrted in edūcashunal and uthr papera, and in meni plaçez folod bi uthr article on thē subject.

Thē Massachusetts Tēchere' Asoshiaſhun met at Worcester, Dēcember 26. J. A. Allen red a paper on "Speling Refōrm, hwich provokt a livli discūshun, and led tu thē apōintment ov a comiti tu

co-operat with the American Filological Asoshiashtun in memorializing Congres fër the establishment ov a comishun tu investigat the orthografi ov the English langwag, and report upon reformæ in it. The report wæz adopted and Messrs. D. B. Hagar, Salem; N. T. Allen, Newton; B. F. Tweed, Boston; A. P. Stone, Springfield; A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, wûr apointed.

The Illinois Stat Têchera' Asoshiashtun met at Springfield, Dec. 29. Dr. Willard, ov the Chicago Hî Scûl, red a paper on Hau tu Sistematiſe English Orthografi," hwich wæz printed in several papers. A discushun felod and a comiti on speling reform wæz apointed, tu report next yër.

The Iowa Stat Têchera' Asoshiashtun past the foloing: Rezolvd, That wê hærtili apruv the acshun ov the Filological Asoshiashtun in asking ov Congres a comishun tu examin intu the deajrabiliti ov reform in English speling.

The Michigan Stat Têchera' Asoshiashtun had the speling reform brôt befør them by E. O. Vaile, editor ov the Educashunal Weekly, Chicago.

In Indiana and Wiscensin it wæz ðlsō up. It is sed in a report tu the Legislatiur ov Wiscensin on the subject that "nêrli 400 residents ov Wiscensin, ofîcers and profesors in our coleges and têchera in our public scûle, hav united in a memorial tu Congres asking the apointment ov a nashunal comiti."

As a specimen ov the acshun ov the caunti institiuts, wê giv the foloing: Rezolvd, That wê (the têchera ov the Schuylkill County Institiut, Pa.) endōrs the last anuâl apêl ov the American Filological Asoshiashtun tu têchera, editors, and the inteligent public tu mak a begining in the reform ov dropping the üsles *e* in the wûrda *have*, *give*, and *live*.

The Northampton Caunti Institiut, Pa., past in substanç the resolushun recomended in the Chicago çûrcular in favor ov recwesting our legislatiur, stat and nashunal, tu apoint comishuna tu investigat and report hwet can bē dun tu simplifi our speling.

Resolushuna in favor ov reform hav bin further past, and comitia apointed upen it, bi the Stat Têchera' asoshiashtuna ov New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, New Jersey, Missouri, and Virginia.

In meni casea, stat legislashun haa bin invokt, as wel as nashunal. Stat comishuna hav, in fact, bin ðthorizd bi the legislatiur ov Connecticut, Wiscensin, and Pennsylvania.

The text-buk comishun ov the stat ov Wiscensin mad a report on speling reform Jan. 8, 1879. It is a comprehensiv and impresiv argüment in favor ov the reform and ov stat acshun tu promôt it. It propōzes that the superintendent ov public instruchun bē ðthorizd tu suppli the scûle ov the stat with a dicshuneri embedding an amended orthografi in conecshun with the præsent apruvd orthografi. The report wæz prepar'd bi Senator George H. Paul, ov Milwaukee, and is everihwar recognizd as an abl and impørtant documēt.

Senator W. W. Fowler, çhärman ov the Connecticut Legislativ Comishun, hwich consists further ov Profs. Whitney and Trumbull ov Yale, Hært ov Trinity, and Van Benshoten ov Wesleyan

Üniversiti, with Hon. B. G. Northup, Secreteri ov Edücashun, ia preparîng a volum on the subject för publicashun in advanç ov the next seshun ov the legislatür.

Dhè Hon. A. H. Stephens, ov Georgia, hū ia wörmli interested in the refoärm, hāz takn chārg ov the memorial tu Cōngres, and it wil probabli bē hōrd frōm at the next seshun.

Dhè Pres haa not neglected thū subject. Dhè Speling Refōrm Asoshiashun ishūz a Buletin; the edücashunal jūrnals hav bin spe-shali interested—speling refoärm depārtments ār tu bē faund in the New Eggland Jūrnal ov Edücashun and in the Edücashunal Weekly ov Chicogo, and cōmunicashuns and uthar ārticls hav bin frēcwent in meni jūrnals—in the New York Tīmes, för exampl, the Chicogo Tribüne, and the St. Louis Republican. Mōr elaborat ārticls hav bin publisht in the magazīns—as in Dhè Galaxy, Dhè Atlantic, Dhè Athenæum, Dhè Academy, and in the transacshuns ov the Filological Asoshiashun, the American Institut ov Instrucshun, and in buks lik Max Müller's "Chips frōm a German Wōrkshop," Whitney's "Oriental and Linguistic Studiez," Hadley's "Philological and Critical Essayz," and Ellis's wōrks. Tū impōrtant nū buks hav bin holi devōted tu this subject—wun bī Mr. Sweet, fōrmer President ov the Filological Soçeti ov London; wun bī Mr. J. H. Gladstone. Dhè Speling Refōrm Buletin fōr Āpril, 1878, contana a bibliografi ov this literatür, and it çürtinli maks a respectabl sho.

Prof. Edward North, ov Hamilton Colej, mad a lōrned and fōr-çibl plē fōr the refoärm befōr a convenshun ov scūl-cōmishuners and süperintendents at Utica, N. Y., hwich wōz printed in the Utica Mōrning Herald and uthar papers as far west as Chicogo.

Prof. L. H. Carpenter, ov the Üniversiti ov Wisconsin, the wel-nōn Anglo-Saxon scolar, and òthor, red an abl paper in favor ov refoärm befōr the Stat Tēchera' Asoshiashun at Genève. It ia printed as a pamphlet.

A livli discushun haa bin göing on in the Chicogo Tribüne, hwich haa brōt out a number ov skēms ov refoärm and the üsüal objecshuns tu ol ov them. Dhār ia a grat dēl ov wōrk tu bē dun yet, and the Chicogo refoärmers sēm tu bē redi fōr it.

Mr. T. R. Vickroy, our enthüsiastic and indefatigabl director fōr the Southwest, haa completed his "Reading Book," and it haa bin publisht bī Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co., Çinçinnati. It ia printed in the alfabet and speling ov the Asoshiashun, and wil bē a grat help tu the refoärm.

Steiger's "Year-Book ov Edücashun" fōr 1878 giva a ful acount ov the speling refoärm fōr the yēr in the ārticl "Orthografi." Appleton's "Year-Book" òlsō promisc a similar ārticl.

In ol this cōpius expreshun ov interest I du nōt nō ov a singl scolar òr eminent edüicator ov the nū generashun hū hāz cum out in favor ov the old speling. Our ilustrius and venerabl chief, the Hon. George P. Mārsh, the American Minister tu Italy, sez that in his ürlī lif hē, lik mōst litereri men ov that tīm, wōz prejüdict agensht this refoärm; but the wat ov the argüment in its favor hāz convinçt him ov its neçesiti. And a similar declarashun ia mad bī Dr. Morris, and bī uthers ov our elders. Sumtīme, it must bē confest, thez

venerabl ðheritia, hū plā thār pārt aē refōrmerē with brav façes tu thē public, wār a lugūbrius luk in priuat, and hōp thē refōrm ma net cum in thār tīm. But ēvn Richard Grant White, hū is aē much ov an irconçilabl aē enibodi, clame tu bē a refōrmer, and recogñize aē amended speling aē having becum a fashun. Hau fār this fashun hae gon in Eygland ma bē gatherd frōm thē fōlōing pasaj in Mrs. Lewes' latest buk, "Theophrastus Such":

"I hav a sort ov valet and factōtum, an exelent, respectabl sūrvant, hūz speling is sō unvishiatiē bī non fonetic absūrditiā that hē riȝts *night* aē *nit*. Wun dā, lūking ovēr hīz acaunts, I sed tu him, jocōsli: 'Yū ār in thē latest fashun with yūr speling, Pummel. Most pepl spel 'night' with a *gh* betwēn thē *i* and *t*; but thē gratest scolara nau spel aē yū dū.' 'Sō I supōa, sūr,' sed Pummel; 'I'v sen it with a *gh*; but I'v nōwae giv in tu that myself.' Yū wud never cach Pummel in an interjecshun ov sūrprīz."

Sō much fōr aur fūrst øbject; disatisfacshun with thē old speling and general interest in thē refōrm. Hwot hav wē dun on thē poēitiv sīd? Hwot dū wē propōz fōr thē nū speling?

In thē fūrst plaç wē hav put fōrth an idēal alfabet, and thē principlē hwīch contrōl orthēgrafi. This wōz left tu thē filōlogists. Mōst ov thē comiti wūr wel-nōn masterē ov thē general subject—Whitney, Haldeman, Trumbull, Child; but nun ov them had eni skēm ov hīz øn. Dha invītēd skēmā, and thā rēcēvd them bī thē bareful. Hwot thā dū net nau nō ov skēmā is net wōrth nōing. Thē alfabet is a Rōman alfabet, veri much øn thē sam plan aē refōrmd German and Spanish. It fixēz thē old leterē in thār Rōman and Anglo-Saxon pauēra aē nērli aē ma bē; accēpts thē digraf cōsonants in *h* (*th*, *ch*, *sh*, etc.), and declāra it neçeseri tu hav thrē nū leterē fōr elementeri vauelē hwīch wūr unōn tu thē ørli Rōmanā—thōa in *fat*, *not*, *but*. Fōr thēa it sugjests modīfīcāshunē ov *a*, *o*, and *u*. A diacritical mārķ is aded, hwen grat acūraçi is nēded, tu denōt a lōng vauel saund.

This alfabet wōz set fōrth net with eni hōp ov its imēdiat adōpshun, but aē a gīd in making mīnor changea. *Could* is a standing exampl ov unpārduabl speling. Thē *l* is a shēr blunder; thē *ou* hae a rōng saund. Shal wē riȝt *cud*, *cood*, *kud*, *kood*, *cud*, ør hwet? Befor wē can tel wē must fix aur idēal English alfabet.

Having this setld, it hae bin thē pelīçi ov thē Asōshīashun tu encōraç øl sōrts ov changea hwīch tend tōard it. Onli thrē nū tips, and thēa wel-nōn fōrmā, ār recwīrd fōr thē ultimat alfabet. But publisherē and tēcherē ashūr us that Dr. Lēigh's modīfīd tips can bē ūad in meni publicāshunē hwār it is net poēibl at prēzent tu chang thē speling. Wē hav, acōrdingli, rēcōmendēd and ūad in aur øn publicāshunē a number ov nū tips līk thōa ov Dr. Lēigh—*a*, *è*, *g*, *ç* (*çedila*), *z* (*reverst s*), etc.

On thē øther hand, meni changea ov speling ār poēibl without thē ūs ov eni nū tips. Thē drepīng ov sīlent leterē afōrda thē mōst øbvius exampla.

Wē hav, acōrdingli, rēcōmendēd and adōptēd varius spēshal rūla fōr speling without nū tips. A set ov fiv ov thēa hae cum tu bē wīdli nōn under thē nam ov thē "Fū Nū Rūla." Dha ār aē fōlōz:

1. Omit *a* from the digraf *ea* hwen pronounct aa *e* shört, aa in *hed*, *helth*, etc. 2. Omit silent final *e* after a shört vauel, aa in *hav*, *giv*, etc. 3. Ryt *f* för *ph* in such wörda aa *alfabet*, *fantom*, etc. *Chang ed* final tu *t* hwär it haa the saund ov *t*, aa *iz* lasht, *imprest*, etc.

At the mēting ov the American Filolegical Asoshiahsun, in 1878, the Cōmiti on the Refōrm ov English Speling—Prof. F. A. Mārch, chārman; Profs. W. D. Whitney and J. H. Trumbull, ov Yale Cōleg; Prof. S. S. Haldeman, ov the Ünivērsiti ov Pennsylvania—reportēd aa fēlōa:

In acordanç with the plan ov preparīng a list ov wörda för hwich an amēdēd speling ma bē adeptēd concūrent with that nau in üs, aa sugēstēd bi Prēsidēt J. Hammond Trumbull, at the sēsion ov 1875, and favorabli reportēd upon bi the cōmiti ov that sēsion, the cōmiti nau prēzēt the fōlōing wörda aa the beginīng ov such list, and recomēd them för imēdiat üs: *Ar*, *catalog*, *definit*, *gard*, *giv*, *hav*, *infinit*, *liv*, *tho*, *thru*, *wisht*.

The Speling Refōrm Asoshiahsun haa in the sam wa takn up and spēsiali recomēdēd *hav*, *giv*, and *liv*.

We had betēr not bōst ov our succēs in getīng eni ov thea changea intu actiāl üs. Nūthing haa bin printēd in pur alfabet but a fū ilūstrativ spēcimēnz. It stil remanē the alfabet ov the fütür. Printīng with mör ör les ov Dr. Leigh's tips haa bin mör cōmun. The Filolegical Asoshiahsun haa had tū fōnts ov thea tips cut tu mach thōa üēd in the "Proçēdingz" and in the "Transacshunz," and papērz wil bē printēd in bōth in eni speling hwich ēthōra ov ēch ma adept in hārmoni with the rēpōrts. The nü vōlūm centana such papērz. In the munth ov Ōgust, 1877, at Chicōgo, Ill., the Adama, Blackmer & Lyon Publishīng Cūpani, O. C. Blackmer, Prēsidēt, began tu introdūç the alfabet ov the Speling Refōrm Asoshiahsun intu thār widli çürclātēd pēriōdical, The Little Fōlks. The letērz wōr introdūçt gradūali in succēsiv munths. It nau anōunçēa that it cōtana ēl the nü letērz, and clama that tha embaras nō wun, but asist in pronunshiahsun.

It haa ēlredi bin mēshund that Mr. Vickroy, our director för the Sauthwest, haa prēpārd a "Rēading Book" för us. Iē haa ēlsō latli ishād the fōrst number ov a papēr, cōld the Fonetic Tēcher, printēd with the sam tip. The Missouri Stat Tēcher's Asoshiahsun haa directēd the vōlūm ov its "Proçēdingz" this yēr tu bē printēd in the sam alfabet. Articlē hav apērd in it in the New Eggland Jurnal ov Edūcāshun and spēcimēnz in mēni nūzapapērz and pēriōdicalz. Dr. Leigh's scūl buks är wel-nōn and widli üēd. The influēnç in favor ov nü tips exūrtēd bi the publicashunz ov Pitman, Parkhurst, and Lōngley ma ēlsō bē mēshund. Pitman's Jurnal iz a wēkli, with a çürclāshun ov sum 11,000 copiez. A lārg number ov sporadic ishūz in tips invēntēd bi enterprīzīng Americānz divērsifi the fēld ov vū.

Printīng in pūr fonetic speling, ör with nü tips, sēma aa yet tu bē mishuneri wōrk. It cōsts a gud dēl ov muni, and the rētōrna är manli sentimental. It iz, hāuever, a prīm nēcēsiti in ērdēr tu kēp our gōl befōr us, and direct ēl mīnor changez; aa wel aa för a metric ör kē alfabet.

Dhè "fiv rûla" and thè "elevn wûrde" giv beter promis. A veri lãrg number ov ârticls hav apêrd with them in thè nûspapera. Dha hav met with speshal favor amung printerz, and hav bin ûad môr or les in ôlmôst ôl thè ôrgane ov thè craft. Dhè Electrotyper, ov Chïcogo, haa adopted thè elevn wûrda, and sea in its last ishû:

"Dhis mûvment, tu hwich Dhè Electrotyper haa givn adhêzhun, and hwich it ia endeavoring tu promôt, ia ganing strengfh dali."

Our cõtèmporeria ov Dhè Type Founder hav publisht a cãrfuli ritn ârticl upen thè subject, hwich, bi thè wa, haa bin ishûd in pamphlet fôr, az wun ov thè Buletina ov thè Speling Refôrme Asoshia-shun; Dhè Electrotipe Jurnal wôrmlï advocats thè refôrme, and wil hërafter confôrme tu thè elevn amended spelings recomended bi thè American Filological Asoshia-shun; Dhè Chïcogo Specimen publishez thè emendashuna, and sez that tha ôt tu bẽ adopted at wunç; Dhè American Newspaper Reporter favors thè refôrme, and haa publisht several ârticls advocating it: Dhè Quodrat, Pittsburg, favors thè chang and ma ultimatlï adopt it; and fû thõtful printerz, sô far az wẽ can lörn, hav ôt tu sa agenst thè adopshun ov thè emendashuna recomended.

A number ov ôrgane ov varius sôshal refôrma hav adopted sum ov thèa wûrda.

Dhè Lïbreri Jurnal ia dûing a gud. wûrk in thè sam wa. And wẽ hav rëan tu belëv that meni editorz and publishers ov thè popûlar general nûspapera âr ploting an insurecshun hwich ma prûv tu bẽ a revolûshun. On this subject wẽ shal hav a paper at this seshun fröm wun ov thè lëding editorz, Mr. Nôrth, ov thè Utica Herald.

Scientific speshalists âr helping, bi amending tecnicl tûrma.

C. A. Cutter, thè lïbrarian ov thè Boston Athenëum, thè eminent ôthor ov thè "Rûla fôr a Dicshuneri Catalog," publisht bi thè Ünited States, put at thè hed ov thè Bibliografi in thè Lïbreri Jurnal this nôt:

"Dhè American Filological Asoshia-shun, thè onli bodi in thè cuntri hwich can bẽ sed tu bẽ ov eni ôfheriti in thè mater ov lag-gwag, haa publisht a list ov ten [elevn] wûrda in hwich it recomenda an imprûvd speling. With thè grater pãrt ov thè list lïbrarians hav nō speshal concûrn, but with regûrd tu 'Catalog' I fel that wẽ âr cöld upen tu deçid hwether wẽ wil slavishli folo thè ôbjecshunabl orthogرافي ov thè past, or wil mak an efört, at a tïm hwen thar ia everi chanç ov its bëing succësful, tu efect sum imprûvment. In this cas thè responsibiliti rests upen catalogera. Dhè proper pûrsune tu introduç nû fôrma ov tecnicl wûrda or thöa ârtiansa hû hav môt tu dû with them. I shal, tharför, in thè foloing nôts (exçept cwöting) omit thè supërfluous *ue*. I am wel awar that thè unwunted apëranç ov thè wûrd wil bẽ distastful fôr a tïm tu meni rëdera, inclûding miself; but thè advantagez ov thè shörter fôrme âr enuf tu compensat fôr thè temporeri anoiانç. Tu bibliografera, hû âr acustumd tu thè German 'Katalog,' thè efört tu get ûad tu 'catalog' shud hãrdli bẽ perceptibl."

Sinç that tïm hẽ haa ûad this speling entïrli. Meni urther lïbrarians hav adopted it, and ùe it in thar ârticls and cõrespondenç. Dhè editor ov Dhè Jurnal fïnde that this influenç haa spred sô fast that

hè reçevə mör spelings "catalog" than with the *æ*. The President ov the American Ljbreri Asoshiashun, having dauts ov the wiadum ov the chang, incwria wör sent tu a number ov lëding librarians, asking thar opinyun. The ansers wör so encüraging that Mr. Cutter nau propöæz tu adept "bibliografi." This shoə hau much a lëding speshalist ma dü with a litl efört.

T. B. Sprague, M. A., Viç President ov the Institut ov Actüeria, England, hæz ishüd a menograf in refermd speling en "Duz Vacçinashun Aförd eni Protecshun Agenst Smöl-pox?" Hè sez: "I belèv that speling reformers shud üa thar utmöst influenç tu get a pärshali reformd speling adopted in trëting ov subjects ov general interest so that the public ma becum familiarizd with the ìdea that a speling reform is posibl." The nü dres fits a sjentific paper pürfectli.

The sjentists hav fërther takn up the mater ov an ìdeal ör metric alfabet and speling, tu bè üad cöncurentli with the preəzent, fër sjentific purposez manli. Everi English dicshneri hæz tu hav such an ìdeal alfabet tu üa in its pronunshiashun. Everi filological wörk hæz the sam neçesiti. Sö with sjentific wörka trëting ov fërin cuntria and giving the pronunshiashun ov fërin name. Aə a mater ov fact ech ov our dicshneria—Webster, Worcester, Chambera, Stormonth, and the lik—hæz a diferent kē alfabet, ech wörs than the uthër; and filologists är about aə bad. It wud bè a prodigüs gan if thar wör an agrement on the alfabet ov the fütür simpli fër sjentific üs.

The Nashunal Asoshiashun ov Great Britain fër the Promöshun ov Söshal Sjenc had this mater beför them in a paper bi Prof. Newman, red tu the Cöngres at Chettenham, in October, 1878. It woa refürd tu the Edücashun Depärtment, hwich raad a speshal cömiti upon it, hü hav givn it much atenshun, and fïnali past ünanimusli a rezolüshtn in favor ov an altörnativ mefhud ov speling. The sa:

Such an altörnativ mefhud wud bè at wunç üsful: 1. Fër indicating the pronunshiashun ov eni wörd ör nam that ma net bè familiar tu ördineri rëdera. 2d. Fër tēching the proper pronunshiashun ov wörda in scüla, and thus cüring vulgarisma. 3d. Fër representing diferent djalects ov individuäl pecüyaritia. 4th. Fër shöing the pronunshiashun ov fërin langwages. This altörnativ mefhud, if generali aprüvd, wud gradüali becum a cöncrent mefhud and perhaps eventüali wud displaç the preəzent irregülar speling (just aə Arabic nümerala hav generali displaç the Roman nümerala). In the mëntim it wud sürv tu indicat the direcshun in hwich eni pärshal reformə ov the cürent speling shud bè mad.

Tha är in daut about a sütabl ötheriti tu inishiat acshun. It wil bè rememberd that our Memörials tu Cöngres cöntemplat a joint cömishun from the guvurnments ov the English-spëking nashuna, tu deçid this mater.

Thar är tü impörtant publicashuna nau at hand hwich cöl fër such a deçizhun—the Grat Historical Dicshneri ov the English Filological Socjeti and the amended vürshun ov the English Bibl. The Dicshneri hæz nau bin mör than twenti yērs in making. The material acümulated fër it is spökn ov bi the tun'e wat. The

Univërsiti ov Oxford hav nau undertakn tu print it, and the fërst velüm wil apër in 1882.

It wil bë wun ov the grat buks ov the world; a standard wörk för generashuna. Dr. Murray, President ov the Filolögical Soçjeti, hū ia its editor, wishea tu put the kë pronunshiashun in an agrëd förm ov speling. It ia wörth agreing för. If it ia agrëd upen and establisht in the Dicshuneri, wë ma wel hōp tu sè an edishun ov the nü translashun ov the Bìbl spëdili ishüd in it. And then wë ma färli sa that the reförm stande on an establisht sistem and methud, lik the metric sistem ov wats and mëzhüra, and wë shal hav nuthing further tu dü but push it intu üs.

Mëntim, it wud sëm that öthorë and publisherë mīt find the Filolögical Asoshiashun a sufishent ötheriti för the imëdiat üs ov such reförmd speling as tha thiŋk tu bë rëznabl and econömical. Öthorë and editorë är ötheriti tu the masez.

Thë ar ia ful ov hōp. Wë nö, tu bë shür, that the reförm can net bë acomplisht in a da. Nō generashun rërd in the öld speling can bë expected tu adopt the nü wun för comun litereri üs. Thär prejüdices ma bë overcum and thär rëzn convinçt sō fär that tha wil agrë that thär children shal bë töt the beter wa. A generashun, probabli tü or thrë generashunë, must grö up familiar with the nü speling beför it can becum ünivërsal. It ia sumtims sed in public discushuna that the chang ma cum raund för aur grat grandchildren, in 1976, and this ia sed sarcasticali, as tho it wūr a rëzn för epöaing imëdiat acshun. But that ia pūr tøk för a scolar ör a filanthropist.

If this reförm ia tu tak a çentüri, it ia hī tīm it wūr begun. Thë trū scolar and wörker ov tu-da rejoycez with öl hiz mīt in the spirit ov that nöbl ülögium hwich Lörd Bacon pronaunçez on Henry VII.:

"Iia lōë, hūso märks them wel, wūr dëp and net vulgar, net mad on the spūr ov a particülär ocashun för the prezënt, but aut ov providenç för the fütür; that hë mīt mak the estat ov hia pëpl mör and mör hapi, after the maner ov legislatorë in the anshent and heröical tīme."

Thë minüts ov the last mëting, and ov the Execütiv Comiti wūr red bī the Secreteri. A paper wëa red bī Mrs. E. B. Būrna, ov New Yörk, fröm Viç President E. Jōneë, B. A., ov Liverpool, Enggland, on

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Speling Reform ia a mëna tu an end; this end bëing the impruvment and extenshun ov Edücashun in the best and hiest sens, för öl English-spëking pëple, and för öl the raça dependent ör conected with the Anggo-Saxon raç bī hwetever tīa, the world over.

Thë object and am ov Edücashun ia tu develop the mental, moräl, and fëical pauera ov the individüal and ov comünitiz, so as tu secür the gratest amaunt ov pursunal and soshal hapines hwich a beneficent Crëator intended hie inteligent crëtüre shud enjoi.

RAPID PROGRES OV EDUCASHUN IN ENGLAND.

Within the past fü yëra, the British Parliment has decreed, that everi child in Great Britain must atend an efishent scul from the ag ov 5 tu 13, continüusli fer at lest för aura everi da för fiv dæ in the wëk, and för net les than förti wëks in the yër, unles prevented bi sicnes or uthër unavoidabl cōa.

America is justli praud ov its Public Scul Incum, hwich, acerd- ing tu the report ov the Educashun Comishuner, amauents tu \$80,- 000,000, or £16,000,000. This, hauever, inclüda meni cōleges and scula för hjer educashun. In Eggländ, at the rat ov £2 pur child pur Anum, with a preent atendaņ ov about thrë milyuna, and an expected atendaņ ov fiv milyuna, our preent expenditür ov about £6,000,000 wil, in a fü yëra, bë net far shert ov £10,000,000 pur anum from òl sorcea.

Considering that the furst decad ov the 19th cöntüri had past awa befor eni sistematic eforts wur mad in Eggländ för the Educashun ov the pëpl, and that it woa not until about the midl ov the cöntüri that the Guvernment tuk the mater in hand, cōshusli at furst, and with fer and trembling; the progres mad in the public provizhun för Educashun is truli marvelous.

"Meni a Herod has söt the yung child ov Popülar Educashun." "It wud bë dangerus tu instruct the comun pëpl; it wud mak them discontented with thar cōdishun." A noblman, the uthër da, bëing askt tu suport Fonetic Speling, replid that "it wud mak noleg tū eai för the mas ov agricultüral laborera and uthëra, that it wud lëd them tu bë disatisfid with thar lot, and tu rebel agenst thar mastera." It wud bë reng tu charg òl the eponents ov Speling Reform with similar motiva, but it is unfortünat för them that the ar found in bad cumpani. If the Pauera ov darknes had cōbind tu devj the most efectiv mēna för perpetüating "Popülar Ignoranc," it wud bë difficult tu invent an instrument beter fited för that purpus than "English speling as it is."

DISATISFACSHUN WITH PRESENT RESULTS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

Or the results ov the vast and costli mashineri set up bi the Guv- ernment för the promoshun ov educashun satisfactori? Is the tīm ov children in Public Elementeri Scula spent tu the best advantag? Du wë get the wurth ov the outla ov fundz upōn scula in üsful noleg ov a practical kind? Thëa ar cweschuna that ar beginning tu bë askt öminusli, and tha wil pruv so meni nala in the cefin ov cacografi. Nobedi is satisfid with the progres ov the children in our scula. The Educashun Department yër after yër repëts this complant:

"The rezults ar not satisfactori; the reports sho the larg propor- shun ov children atending our scula hü ar not presented tu the inspector tu giv pruf ov the rezults ov thar instrucshun, and the mēger natür ov the rezults atand bi meni ov thoë hü wur examind."

The mēger natür ov the rezults atand in English scula ma be sën from the fact that onli wun pur cënt ov the Grants (Apropriashuna) voted bi Parliment för scula is pad för eni subject beyond Rëding, Riting, Speling, and Arithmetick, with sum elementeri noleg ov Gëografi, Gramar, Histori, and Singing.

Univërsiti ov Oxford hav nau undertakn tu print it, and thë fërst vëlüm wil apër in 1882.

It wil bë wun ov thë grat buks ov thë world; a standard wörk fër generashun. Dr. Murray, President ov thë Filolögical Soçieti, hū ia its editor, wishea tu put thë kē pronunshiashun in an agrëd fërm ov speling. It ia wërth agreing fër. If it ia agrëd upen and establisht in thë Dicshuneri, wë ma wel hōp tu sē an edishun ov thë nü translashun ov thë Bībl spëdili ishud in it. And then wë ma färli sa that thë refërm stande on an establisht sistem and methud, lik thë metric sistem ov wats and mēzhüra, and wë shal hav nufhing further tu dū but push it intu üs.

Mëntim, it wud sëm that ðthorë and publishers mīt find thë Filolögical Asoshiashun a sufishent ðtheriti fër thë imëdiat üs ov such refërmd speling as tha think tu bë rësnabl and economical. ðthorë and editors ār ðtheriti tu thë masez.

Thë ar ia ful ov hōp. Wë nō, tu bë shūr, that thë refërm can net bë acomplisht in a da. Nō generashun rërd in thë old speling can bë expected tu adopt thë nü wun fër comun litereri üs. Thār prejüdices ma bë overcum and thār rëzn convinçt sō fār that tha wil agrë that thār children shal bë tōt thë beter wa. A generashun, probabli tū or thrë generashunz, must grö up familýar with thë nü speling beför it can becum ünivërsal. It ia sumtīnz sed in public discushunz that thë chang ma cum raund fër aur grat grandchildren, in 1976, and this ia sed sarcasticali, as thō it wūr a rëzn fër epōsing imëdiat acshun. But that ia pūr tōk fër a scolar or a philanthropist.

If this refërm ia tu tak a çentüri, it ia hī tīm it wūr begun. Thë trū scolar and wörker ov tu-da rejeices with ol hīz mīt in thë spirit ov thë nöbl ülögium hwich Lörd Bacon pronauñcez on Henry VII.:

“Iīa lōz, hūso mārks them wel, wūr dēp and net vulgar, net mad on thë spūr ov a particülär ocashun fër thë prezënt, but aut ov providenç fër thë fütür; that hē mīt mak thë estat ov hīa pēpl mōr and mōr hapi, after thë maner ov legislators in thë anshent and herōical tīnz.”

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Thë object and am ov Edücashun ia tu develop thë mental, mōral, and fīcal pauera ov thë individüal and ov comünitiz, so as tu secür thë gratest amaunt ov pursunal and soshal hapines hwich a beneficiënt Crëator intended hīz inteligent crëtüra shud enjoi.

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Considering that the furst decad ov the 19th cēntüri had past awa befor eni sistematic eforts wur mad in Enggland fer the Educashun ov the pēpl, and that it woa not until about the midl ov the cēntüri that the Guvernment tuk the mater in hand, cōshusli at furst, and with fer and trembling; the progres mad in the public provizhun fer Educashun is truli marvelous.

"Meni a Herod has sēt the yung child ov Popülär Educashun." "It wud bē dangerus tu instruct the comun pēpl; it wud mak them discontented with thar cōdishun." A noblman, the uthər da, bëing askt tu suport Fonetic Speling, replid that "it wud mak nōleg tū əsi fer the mas ov agricultüral laborers and uthers, that it wud lēd them tu bē disatisfid with thar lot, and tu rebel agenst thar masters." It wud bē rēng tu charg əl the oponents ov Speling Reform with similar motivez, but it is unfortunat fer them that the ar found in bad compani. If the Pauers ov darknes had cōbind tu devjə the most efectiv mēns fer perpetüating "Popülär Ignoranc," it wud bē difficult tu invent an instrument beter fited fer that purpus than "Englisch speling as it is."

DISATISFACSHUN WITH PRESENT RESULTS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

Or the results ov the vast and cōstli mashīneri set up bi the Guv-ernment fer the promoshun ov educashun satisfactori? Is the tīm ov children in Public Elementeri Sculə spent tu the best advantag? Du wē get the wurth ov the outla ov fundz upen sculə in üsful nōleg ov a practical kind? Thēa ar cweschunə that ar beginning tu bē askt əminusli, and tha wil prūv so meni nala in the cōfin ov cacegrafi. Nobodi is satisfid with the progres ov the children in aur sculə. The Educashun Department yər after yər repēts this complant:

"The resultz ar not satisfactori; the reports sho the larg propor-shun ov children atending aur sculə hū ar not preented tu the inspector tu giv pruf ov the results ov thar instrucshun, and the mēger natür ov the results atand bi meni ov thoz hū wur examind."

The mēger natür ov the results atand in Engglish sculə ma be sēn from the fact that onli wun pur cēt ov the Grants (Apropriashunə) voted bi Parliment fer sculə is pad fer eni subject beyond Rēding, Riting, Speling, and Arithmetic, with sum elementeri nōleg ov Gēografi, Gramar, Histori, and Singing.

Thè òtheritiz hithertu du net sèm tu sè hwer thè shū pinchea, and, insted ev puting thè sadl on thè proper hors—aur untèchabl speling—the scrū up thè techera tu thät degre ev tenshun in thar wurk aa sumtjma tu produç fatal reaults, and in meni instancez efects injurius tu thè helth ev both tèchera and scolara.

Ther iz a groing demand fer a mor liberal rang ev studia in thè sculz, but thè anser ev thè òtheritiz iz, “No room.”

Hèr iz a number ev subjects crauded out or drivn tu a còrner in aur sculz. Spieking ev Peni Bagks, thè venerabl President ev thè Liverpool Cauncil ev Edücashun sed thè uther da:

“It iz litl short ev a crim tu neglect eni òportüniti ev tèching habits ev thrift and providenç tu thè rjaising generashun.”

Mr. Wm. Rathbone, M. P., haz òfn spokn tu thè sam efect. Hwi ar net Peni Bagks in everi Public Elementeri Scul in Liverpool? Simpli becoz thè wun aur a wèk can net bè spard fròm thè còching neceseri fòr thè examinashun in speling.

In thè Haus ev Còmuns everi seshun, and in meni Scul Bords and uther Asembliz in thè cuntri, complants ar òfn mad, thät Müeic, Òbject Lesuna, Thè Lōa ev Helth, Cukeri, and uther üsful subjects ar net mor extensivli töt in Public Elementeri Sculz. Thè redi anser ev thè Òtheritiz tu thèz apèlz iz: “Luk at thè rediculüsli smel proporshun ev children wè ar abl tu turn out hū can rəd tolerabli and spel corectli.”

FONETIC SPELING THE ONLI REMEDI.

Statsmen lik Mr. Lowe, and Edücatora lik Bishop Temple sè clerli thät thè remedi fòr thiz iz thè adopszun ev a Fonetic Sistem ev Speling.

It iz no longer a mater ev daut, or ev experiment thät children entering scul at thè ag ev fiv ma bè töt on *eni* Fonetic Sistem Rëding and Speling farli wel bi thè ag ev sevn. Thè rest ev thar tjm at scul wud bè devoted tu thè studi ev thè üsful subjects demanded fòr them. Thè children nau ask fòr bred and wè giv them a ston; fed them on husks!

Hwet a splendid òportüniti iz aforded bi aur Bord and Vølunteri Sculz, with compulsori atendanç up tu thè ag ev 13 or 14, fòr aur fütür artizana tu bè töt thè elements ev mecanics, thè propertiz ev ar and weter, and uther facts ev fiaeal sjenç, hwich it iz so important thä shud understand, and hwich ar esenshal tu thè prosperiti ev thè cuntri, but hwich ar nau crauded out bi thè òl-engrosing, never-ending, stil beginning demande ev speling!!

Englishmen, with thar kèn sens ev thè valü ev muni, wil net continü tu pa milyune anüali fòr duing badli in ten yèr, wurk hwich ma bè dun beter in tū. Sentimental venerashun fòr old institushuna iz òl veri wel in its wa, but èvn Temple Bar, with its hori asoshiashuna, haz bin remuvd at last, thè òbstrucshunz tu thè trafic ev London having becum intolerabl.

OBJECSSHUNS IN THEIR LUDICRUS ASPECT.

Thè scøfera at speling Reform ar themselva being atakt bi thar òn wepuna. A wag asks if wè spel—“beauty,” hwi net spel

"duty" "deauty"? Hwî net spel "judge" "dgeuj," sinç the furst and the last consonants in the wurd hav præçisli the sam sound? or, rather, hwî net "juj"? Dhè Rt. Hèn. Røbt. Lowe, wun ov the Viç Presidents ov the Speling Reform Asoshiashun and formerli Minister ov Educashun, hæ chalengd the Haus ov Comuns that net haf-a-duzn ov its members can spel of-hand the wurd "unparalleled." Wøz the "r" tu hë dubld? Wøz the "l" tu bë dubld in wun or bofh casea? Dhëa wud bë cweschuna tu puzl Hèn. and Rt. Hèn. members ølmost aa much aa turma ov the trëti ov Berlin, and yet a child ov ten yëz in a Welsh cølyeri scul wud bë plukt bi an Inspector for falür in speling a wurd ov this kind.

A sèrio-cømic stori is told ov a veri devaut theological profesor having reçevd a lëter frøm wun ov the alumnj ov his cøleg hū had gøn tu his furst charg in a cuntri church. Horibl tu relat, the yung minister had tū or thrë orthografical blunderz in the lëter adrest tu his tütör. Dhë gud old man wøz so shøkt that hë sumund the stüdents tu a prær mëting, and askt them tu pra urnestli that nun ov thar stüdents in fütür shud disgrac thar alma mater bi bad speling.

Dhë lat Lord Palmerston fhretend tu dismiss his secreteri becøe the later spelt "wagon" with wun g, tho "gud øtheritie" wur givn in suport ov that speling. Lord Malmesbury ridicula the idëa ov making speling the "wun thing nedful" in the Civil Surviç examinashun, and hë declarz that frøm decüments in his pøeshun no Prim Minister frøm Lord Bute tu Lord Palmerston cud hav past the speling test.

Aa the hevi artileri ov the filølogists hæ efectuali silençt the pøp-guna ov the etimølogists, aa far aa argüment is conçurnd, a litl banter and raleri ma surv a purpus.

Eni stik is gud enuf tu bët a bad dog with. Wë ma fel sinçer simpatfi for the man hū apëla tu us in such a stran aa this:

"Yu wil abolish øl distiñçshun betwën the educated and the ignorant. Speling is the wun acoñplishment I prjded mißelf upon. I wun øl the prizez at the Speling Bëe and no wun hæ ever found më triping in speling. Nau, yu propoa tu mak everi urchin in a raged scul ècwal tu mißelf. It is rèali tu bad."

It is tū much, hæuever, for aur frende tu expect that the march ov Educashun is tu bë støpt for such rëana.

THE HOUSE OV COMUNS AND FONETIC SPELLING.

Dhë batl ov rashunal speling must ultimatl bë fët out aa regards England, at lëst, in the British Haus ov Comuna. Ølredi ther ar members præpard, hwen the tïm cumz, tu champiun the cøz in the Haus. Dhë cøstic and inciðiv elocwenç ov Mr. Lowe, hwich hæ shaterd men an øbstrucshun tu üßful reforma, is ther hwen nëded. Sir Charles Rëed, the ünivursali ønord and trusted Charman ov the London Scul Bord, wil, in øl probabiliti, hav a sët in the next Parliamt, hwer his comprehensiv grasp ov øl subjects baring øn educashun, his pleazant maner, and biñes tact wil bë invalüabl in the discushun ov the cweschun. Tha wil bë wel suportd bi Mr. Henry Richard, hūa father wøz wun ov the chëf promoters ov Sunda Scula in Wales. Mr. Richard wil bë abl tu testifi tu the gud effects ov a

Fonetic Sistem òv speling in Wales, hwer it is an exçeption tu find eni wun unabl tu red the nativ tung, and hwer a far larger proporshun òv buks and periodicals ar böt and red than in Eggländ, oltho ther ar no da sculz or pad tēchers tu tēch the Welsh langwag. Mr. Wm. Rathbone, the respected Member for Liverpool, hū, with his famili, has dun so much tu promot edūcāshun in his nativ taun, wil bē found redi tu help hwen help is wented, and the sam ma bē secl' òv Messrs. G. Otto Trevelyan, Mundella, Anderson, R. Davies, and uthers. We ar elredi indeted tu the gratest òv living statsmen — òv hūm it ma bē mor truli sed than òv most men that everifthing that cōcerns hūmaniti is òv interest tu him — for wurda òv simpathi and òv counsel in this muvment, and his valiābl ad and asistanç ma bē calculatēd upōn; I mēn, òv cōrs, William Ewart Gladstone. Seldum has eni reform cum befor the public òv Eggländ bact bi such an ara òv lurning, with such an urnest practical neçesiti and with so febl an opozishun. We ma ol bē stimulated bi the urnest wurda òv Mr. Pitman:

“Tu mē it sēma that next tu the promulgashun òv our divīn religun, ther is nufthing in the present da so important as Phonetic Speling.”

THE SPELING REFORM ASOSHIASHUN IN LONDON.

It wil bē the object and am òv the Speling Reform Asoshiashun latli fōrmd in London tu bring intu a focus the scaterd ræ òv interest felt in this subject bi frendz òv Edūcāshun thruout the United Kingdum and the world.

The Asoshiashun has veri wjeli abstand from cōmiting itself tu an apraval òv eni wun òv the meni skēma òv Reformd Speling that hav bin propounded. In its colectiv capaçiti the Asoshiashun regards the varius sistema propoad as tentativ, subjectiv, experimental, provizhunal. Fū, if eni, òv the òfhors òv skēma in Eggländ regard the propozala in eni uther līt, and hwether the òfhors wish it or not, everi skēm must bē subject tu the apraval òv public opinyun, and the sageshun òv Government òfheriti in sum form or uther.

It ma bē considerd a far cweschun for discussun hwether eni, and if eni hau meni, nū leterz ma bē recwīrd for a practical everi-da sistem òv Phonetic Speling tu bē üad bi everibodi, and ol over the world. Hwether ol the leterz òv the present alfabet shud retan the sound the hav ofnest in the cūrent English speling, or hwether sum òv the leterz shud hav hwet ma bē supoad tu bē the clasical or the continental pauers. Hwether diacritical marks ar tu bē prefurd tu digrāfs, and meni uther points that ar debatabl and debated.

The spirit in hwich the discussunz shud bē conducted is wel exprest in the folowing wurda òv Mr. J. Pitman:

“Ther ar meni skēma for cōrecting the present admittedli absurd orthografi, and hū is tu bē the jug as tu hwich is tu bē adopted? Qurtenli not the projectors. It can not bē utherwjs than that meni skēma shud bē presented. Let them ol bē lad befor the public, and the wun that wāra the best wil bē adopted.”

Mr. Longley has led daun a valüabl prinçipl, hwich ma bë ov grat asistanç in framing a sistem ov Fonetic Speling. Thè prinçipl iz repèted in variing turma, several tîma, shoing that Mr. L. wisht tu emfasiz it strengli:

On paj 34 ov thè Educator for Jün and Julij ov last yèr, Mr. Longley sez:

"Dhat alfabet wil win public favor most redili hüs orthografi most nêrli rezembla thè ordineri speling ov thè English langwag. It is onli bi conforming tu thè American and English üs ov our alfabet that eni reform in our speling can win favor with thè pèpl. It is onli in this wa that thè transishun tu thè nü orthografi can bë ezi tu thè pèpl."

Aplijng this prinçipl so az tu mak thè best üs ov thè prezent letera in a fonetic sens, we dedüç thè foloing rül, simpl, inteligibl, hwich covera everithing:

Let ech ov thè forti sounda in thè langwag bë consistentli represented bi that leter or digraf bi hwich it is represented ofnest in thè cömun speling.

[The foloing iz printed acording tu Mr. Jönes' aplicashun ov his "rool."]

The applicaishon ov this rool iz simply a mater ov calculaishon, and it wil be found on aulmost eny printed paj that out ov thè *meny* simbolz by which *eny* given sound iz represented, sum *wun* simbol haz by far the numerical preponderans. Thus the hard gutural iz represented by *c, k, q, x*, but it wil be found that *c* ocurz for this sound ten tiemz az ofen az the uthè three simbolz put together in aulmost eny pasej. For the difthong "i," vairius simbolz ar uezd, az in *nigh, sign, aisle, height, eye, guide, buy, rye, lies*. Heer, again, the numerical preponderans by far iz in faivor ov *ie*. This prinsipel ov the numerical recurens ov wun particular simbol for eech sound, too much overlookt, may proov the kee tu the solushun ov sum ov the dificultiz ov the problem.

Mr. Pitman now sayz:

"For meny veerz I did not myself think it adviezabel tu riet fonetically with old leterz; but the lojic ov facts, the laps ov tiem, and ecstended intercoers with meny miendz, hav led me tu chainj my opinion. That ther iz a wiedspred dezier tu see whot can be dun with the old alfabet iz evident from a hundred diferent indicatorz."

Everything then points tu the concluzhon that a Fonetic Sistem ov speling in which the prezent leterz only ar uezd iz a practical nesesity, tu be advocaited sied by sied with a compleeted alfabet tu hwich it iz tu leed up. We must not be in too grait a hurry tu setel every detail tu the satisfacshon ov everybody aul at wuns; it wil taik sum tiem tu adjust the claimz ov filolojists, printerz, teecherz; and the grait public outsied. America ecspects sumthing from England, and it iz tu be hoept she may not be disapointed; and England ecspects much from America, and the dezier ov every Speling Reformer in England iz that the gathering at Filadelfia, in 1879, may giv a new impetus tu the moovment we hav aul so much at hart.

DISCUSHUN.

Prof. Haldeman sed that Mr. Jones's plan mīt bē ov sum ūs in perswading thē ignorant, but it did not amount tu much as a reform. Hie grand rul givē thē sam leter fōr meni diferent saundz. Thē leter most frēcwentli ūd fōr thē saund ov *a* in *father* is *a*; that ūd fōr *a* in *fat* is thē sam *a*; and fōr *a* in *fate* thē sam *a*; thē *u* in *music* is ofenest represented bī *u*, so is that in *but*. Mr. Jones, in fact, ūzē an invurtd m fōr *u* in *full*. Did hie rul giv him that? Hē ūzē *ue* fōr *u* in *music*. That suggests thē fact that a givn saund is regulārli represented bī wun leter or set ov leterz hwen it is in thē final silabl, and bī another set in thē preceeding silabl. Thē onli plac hwer yu find *ue* is in thē final silabl. Hwen Mr. Jones ūzē it in thē furst part ov wurdz, hē maks thē wurdz luk as un-Inglish as hē posibli can. It is thē sam wa with hie *oe* fōr *o* in *poetaitoe*, i. e., potato, and hie *ie* fōr *i* in *dieoesees*, i. e., diocēs; tha belong in final silabla. A proper fonetic alfabet fōr Inglish is not tu bē mad bī caunting up leterz. It is a sērius and difficult sientific problem, and shud bē left tu thē sientific stūdents ov fonelōgi.

Wē shud remember that thē hōl wurd is rapidli cūming within our rang; namz ov fōren places and persuna, articla, materialz, objects, ar cūming intū our langwag bī thē shauwand. Wē must hav a speling that wil not disfigūr and disgīz ol thēz. Thē chēf difficulti is with thē saundz ov long *e*, *i*, and *u*. Meni Englishmen ūd tu rēspel thē wurdz in hwich thēz ocūr, and wē had Zulu, Zooloo; Fiji, Feejee, sīd bī sīd; but Zulu and Fiji hav carid thē dē. Thē English Guvernment has adoptēd thē cōmopolitan form ov speling fōren namz and objects in its dependēnciē, and thē amendēd speling must du likwīz. Wē must spel so as tu bē understud bī Germanz and Frenchmen and uther pēpl. And wē must hav a standard, not haf-a-duzn saundz fōr a leter. Thē Ohio tēcherz, it is sed, spel "erysipelas" in fhurti wāz.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, ov Ohio.—"Mor than that."

Rev. H. L. Wayland, D. D., ov Thē National Baptist, Philadelphia, ferd wē shud hav tu wat tū long, if wē insist on havng an alfabet hwich Germanz and Zuluz wil acēpt.

Prof. Haldeman.—"Duz net thē gentlman no that thē Zuluz ar British subjects?"

Dr. Wayland.—"I belēv that is a cweschun nau in dispūt. I hav hurd that rather pointēd vīz hav bin advancēd on thē subject."

In conclūzhun, Dr. Wayland sed that thē reform, tu bē succēsful, must bē mad gradiāli. Hē thot a grat dēl ov hie prospectiv grand-children, but felt that thē blesinge ov thē reform shud not bē kept bac fōr them.

President W. Colegrove, ov West Virginia Colej, sed that wun ov thē principl rēazē hwī fonetic speling has not bin mor redili rēcevd is thē urging ov impurfect and unsientific alfabets. It is a grat mistak tu supōz that alfabets ar tu succēd hwich ar left ful ov contradicshunz and absurditiē.

Mr. C. W. Knudson, ov South Nørwalk, Conn., enforct thē thōt that speling acording tu English analogiē produēces grat confūzhun,

espesnali in feren proper nama. Hè hæ gathered from his cörespondenç a list ev sixti diferent spelingæ ev his ðn nam.

Dr. Walk, Secreteri *pro tem.*, sed that the difficulti ev introduçing a üniform and consistent methud ev speling wæ perhaps over-estimated, espeshali in sientific turma. In his ðn professhun, mediçin, a flud ev nü turma wæ poring in, pronauñt in ðl sorts ev wæ. The embarasment wæ veri grat, and eni gud alfabet hwich wud indicat sum standard pronunshiasshun wud bē cordiali reçevd.

A paper wæ red bi S. S. Haldeman, LL. D., Profesor ev Comparativ Filelogi in the Ünivursiti ev Pennsylvania.

THE ETYMOLOGIC OBJECSSHUN TU SPELING REFORM.

Impruvment in Edücashun, both aa regarda mater and methud, is slo, and in our da ther ar localitia hwer tēcheræ belēv that the furst step in tēching a child tu rēd is tu put him tu the chēres task ev lurning the form and nama ev the alfabetic leters, overluking the man point—thar pauers and cōsecwent fugcshun. Next, insted ev proçeding tu rēd, the child must unlurn part ev his alfabet in pasing thru the diamal swomp ev speling, hwer, after having acwird the nama ev *dzhee* (g) and *eye* (i), hē must sa dzhee-eye-dzhee, “gig”; dzhay-ay-dzhee, “jag”; j-u-d-g-e, “judge”; and hē is evn recwird tu spel a wurd hwich enda in *i*, with r-o-u-g-h; and thus is the strēm ev edücashun corupted at its sorç.

In mī adres ev 1876 * I alüded tu thōa hū expres thar anjzeti lest the speling ev Shakspere and Milton shud bē disfigürd, hwen I sed —“It is probabl that thea trencher frenda never sō a copi ev ether;” and in general, the objecsshuna tu a reform ev Inglish † speling cumæ from the clas üeing such fütilitia.

On the ocashun ev a lectür tu tēcheræ on the subject ev etimologiæ, I wæ askt: “Hau is it posibl for a speling reformer tu discus etimologi?” Mī repli wæ tu the efect that—Langwag is elder than speling, and a succesful studi ev etimologi must bē bast upen the Lōæ ev Spēch.

Tu sa that an elterd speling wud interfer with the studi ev etimologi, is vurtüali tu asurt that Dr. Johnson, in the last çentüri, wæ the gratest ev Inglish etimologists, bëcæ the speling wæ setld chēfli bi him. Yet hē wæ aa litl ev an etimologist aa thōæ ar hū üe this argument.

The grat eßeritiz in etimologi hav bin fonetishanæ hū went at wunç tu the lōæ ev spēch, aa thar wurks indicat; and in this feld Johnson hæ bin supersēded bi Webster, Mahn, Latham, and uthers; and rēgentli Skēat hæ ishud the furst part ev his “Etimological Dicshuner” ev the Inglish Langwag”—tu bē modifið and extended bi fütür eßaurvera.

Thē da after the præçeding sentenç wæ ritn, Thē London Academy cam tu hand with a notiç ev Prof. Skēat’s grat undertaking,

* Buletin ev the Speling Rcfom Asoshiashun, No. 1, Boston, 1877.

† Desended from (old) English, and this from English or Anglo-Saxon. Compare this vowel closure with Latin *clarus*, German *klar*, French *clair*, Inglish *clear*.

bj Mr. Swëet, hū objects tu "awe" being refurd tu Anglo-Saxon "oga" as bëing "against all laws of sound-change." Hē sez it is frōm Scandinavian "agi," "first pointed out by Prof. Zupitza"—but tha ar asoçiati bï Diefenbach. Prof. Skëat is chargd with "ignoring the vowel laws when he sees two words temptingly alike. Thus he connects *bless* and *bliss*, *bird* and *brood*, without any hint of the phonetic difficulties." But "rightly rejecting the absurd identifications" ov "bad" with German "bose" and Persian "bad," thē wurk is hïli praad; and Mr. Swëet sez ov thē subject, that "Etymology is not a pursuit to be taken up by dabblers and dilletanti, as many still assume, but is really the sum of the results of every branch of philological science."

Amung thē fëbl atemts at etimologji, that ov Dr. Richardson is prēmīent. Yet Dr. Trench thiŋks him a valüabl eŋheriti, and no wunder, becœ thē eminent prelat standa in thē furst rang ov thē epōzera ov rashunal speling. In thē yēr 1851 hē publisht a wurk "On the Study of Words," hwich shoœ that hē is mor ov a lūs toker than an etimologist, mor formidabl in asurshun than in sienç. Webster's Dicshuneri in tū quarto vëlūma wœz publisht in 1828, republisht in London in 1832, yet Dr. Trench neglected it, and sed ov Richardson's, that "it is the only one from which I can promise you effectual help, for it is the only English one in which etymology assumes the dignity of a science"—as under FIVE, for hwich hē çits old Wachter, hū (thru Grëek πεντε) refurz it tu *πεντα* all—"because *five* fingers are *all*." And Trench himself, feloing Tooke, refurz "odd" to "owed."

Trench's lusnes ov statment apëra in thē asurshun that "no one now believes in astrology," yet astrolegic olmanacs ar extensivli sold from yēr to yēr. Hē credits Horaçe with having sed mor and wizer thiŋgs about wurda than ever hav bin sed elshwer. In his introductori lectür hē deprëciats thē langwagea ov savagez bj asurtiŋ thar "brutal poverty," "their degradation and debasement"—and in saing—"Fearful indeed is the impress of degradation which is stamped on the language of the savage"—such langwagea bëing (hē sez in *everi* cas) "the remnant and ruin [?] of a better and nobler past."

Dobrizhoffer (1784) is çitid for tū South American langwagea aa having no wurd for "thanks," tho thē nativz in return for a gift wud sa, "This will be useful to me," or, "This is what I wanted." But shal wē deprëciat thē Inglish becœ tha refur wurda lik honor, honesti, virtü, püriti, justic, politnes, siviliti, tu a fōren sorç, hwil steling, theft, murder, ar nativ?

But let us tak a luk at sum ov thēa disparagd tunga. Ther ar ecwivalents for "thank" in thē widli speld Tupi (toopee) ov Brazil in Aztec, Cree, Ojibway, Lummi (Western America), Yoruba (African). Dakota (or Sioux) haœ wurda for thank, thanks, thankful, thankful, thankles; wer it not so, Sitting Bull and Man-afrad-ov-hiz-horsea cud not expres thar gratitüd for bëing drivn frōm thar homa bj pëpl hū, tho tha hav not a "brutal poverty" (but rather a brutal richnes) ov spëch, mjt admj̄r thē Dakota verb hwich, as givn bj Riggs, frōm a root KSA (brak of, separat), fërma baksa (tu cut

of with a *nif* or *sō*); paksa (tu brak of *bī* pushing); yaksa (tu *bīt* of)—and uthera.

In "English Past and Present" (1855) the othor spēks ov the *nū* leterz recwird tu print Inglish fonetical, az "a vast number," a fraz hwich mīt bē expected in the furst esa ov a scūlgurl hu had not sēn a performanç ov the Pinafore Opera, hwich so efectuali ridiculz the viç ov exađerashun. Farther, hē asurts that the "greatest of all absurdities" is a pronauñcing dicshuneri. Yet, hwet efhnologists cōl the *couvade* * mīt bē supozd grater—or the referenç ov *ōl* lag-gwagez tu Hēbru—or making Jewz and Welshmen out ov the American aboriginēz—or solushun ov the cwodratūr ov the çurcl—but in the opinyun ov our trenchant critic, thes ar les absurd than pronauñcing dicshuneriz.

But hau ar wē tu trēt buk-wurdez that wē hav never hurd? Aa a *bēi* I wēz fēnd ov *bjōlogi*. I *nū* hōks (hawks), but the nam "falcon" (fōcn) wēz not in *ūs* in mī localiti. Hwen I found it in rēding, I pronauñct it fal-con, with "al" ov "rali"; and I supozd ther wēz a wurd raleri (raillery) insted ov raleri (the naun ov *rali*); but az I *nū* "either" and "neither" az spēch wurdez, I never got so far astrā aa tu rēd them eye-ther and nigh-ther; and probābli a lō ov Inglish spēch ov hwich I wēz unconshus prevented mē frēm puting the incompatibl *gdzh* together in "su'gest."

Trench sez that in speling "analyze" "the tap-root of the word is cut." Hē asks: "What number of readers will recognize in it then the image of dissolving and resolving aught into its elements?" *ōl* ov hwich wud hav bin acomplisht with "analyse," the idēa and pauer ov hwich du net lī in ether speling. But if hē is such a sticler for *y* in "ana-ly-se," hau wud hē get rid ov *u* in "so-lu-tion," ov *v* in "se-lv," and *oo* in "loo-s-en"?—*ōl* frēm the rūt ov "ana-ly-se." And hau distingwish LU ov "solution" frēm LU ov "diluvial," hwich Curtius and Pott mak diferent? and hau sho the afiniti ov lustration, lotion, dilute, lave, lavender?

The rūt ov ana-ly-se is Sanscrit LU (= loo, *cut*, henc separat); that ov "lave" is Latin LU (wash), and Pott devots sixteen pagea (frēm p. 1294 tu 1310 ov his furst vōlūm) tu thes tū stemz. The Latin and the generic nam ov the "otter" is LUTRA, az if the *washer* or *swimer*, but the Latin othor, Varro, sez it wēz namd frēm cuting ruts, hwich wud giv it the uther rūt. Varro probābli confounded the *carnivorus* oter with the plant-ēting bēver, az Dr. Johnson defin'd "weasel" az "A small animal that eats corn and kills mice." In Agglo-Saxon "elpend" ment elefant, and "olfend" ment camel.

If "analyse" az an Inglish wurd recwira *y*, so duz "papyr" (Holland, 1635), frēm PAPYRUS; but without such kē, "parasite" is az much Grēek az "sycophant." Posibli the *y* in "sylvan" (Latin *silvanus*), and *g* in "sovereign" (Latin *supernus*), and in "pregnable" (French *prenable*), ma bē atribütēd tu sum tap-rūt theōri. Inglish has pāra lik bath bath, haf hāv, excūs excūs, purpos propoz, cheiç chūz, hwer a sonant marks vurbz, hwich acaunts for the z-sound in "analyse."

* In hwich, hwen a child iz born, the father iz put tu bed and cared for, hwile the mother atēnds tu her usual duties.

Hwîl Dr. Trench clings tu hia y'a with so litl wiadum, hê mislêdê hia rêderz in çiting a pâr ev wurda, az "spirit" and "spright," hwer 'sprite' is a short form ev 'spirit.'

It wêa olwaz rong and agenst etimologi tu rît thê short final ev wurda lik 'histori' with 'y'; and it wêa rong tu ûz it as a consonant. In fact, 'y' represents several distinct letera; furst and properli, its Græek, Anglo-Saxon, and Danish pauer ev Gerinan 'û,' French 'u,' a saund stil ûed in Scotch: secundli, az diphthongal in 'by' (Dutch bij, Vandijk or Vandyck), hwer it standê for 'ij': thurdli, for the consonant in 'ye,' hwer it grû out ev wun ev thê ritn ferme ev 'g.' In old English it is a substitüt for an Anglo-Saxon leter for *th*, so that thê definit articl spelt 'ye' is tu bê red *the*.

Ignorans ev thê European alfabet apêrê in our modê ev rêding South African wurda cœnected with thê Zulu (= Zooloo) wer. Kraal (= Krål) is absurdli givn bi sum orthoepists as 'Kra-al,' in tû silabl. In thê nam ev thê nativ javlin, 'assagai,' thê Dutch pronouns êch s pûrli and distinctli (thê word bëing Arabic—thê furst silabl thê articl), thê 'g' as in Dutch, aproximating thê Arabic *ghain* ev thê original; and thê ascended final 'ai' as in 'aisle.' In English, thê last silabl wud becum *gui* as in 'guile.' So thê nam ev a South American aligator, thê 'cayman,' wêa intended tu bê pronounst with *kî* ev 'kind.' Thê *gh* ev thê original ev assagai ecûra as thê inishal ev 'razzia' (an incursion), properli ghōzia (with a singl English z). Thê speling 'razzia,' and pronunsiashun 'rât-si-a,' impli Italian, but thê word is Arabic, thê inishal 'r' bëing du tu a French ratling, provinshal gutural, hwich replacêa tru 'r.'

Oltho sum pretend that speling shud bê etimologic, it must not cros çurten sensles rulê. Etimologi recwîrê final i in bludi (blodig); histori (histora); sturdi (estourdi); tardi (tardif); but a kind ev superstishun ferbidê final 'i,' and it is introduct clandestinli bi taking its dubl form 'ij' and smugling it in as 'y,' and so 'felly' (folie) had beter luc than thê brüt with a lîen'a peltri, and sêma tu hav thê Græek ending ev 'mōly' (a kind ev plant) hwer it is etimologic.

Thê letera ferbidn tu bê final wur—c, i, j, q, u, v—and thêa wur also ferbidn tu bê dubld; henss formê lik back; due; imbrue; pique; etc., apêrd. It sêmd imposibl tu hav a wurd slāv, becœz thê pedants recwîrd a final 'e,' hwen thê wurd must bê pronounst *slave*. But in a fû casea cœmun senss haa prevald, and wê find nama lik Boulaq; Sutlej; slav; haj or hajj; but navigators ar denjd thê 'vv' acœrded tu navvîa.

Nashuna without 'k' ûz 'q' insted, but it dâr not bê disoçiat from 'u,' and in berod wurda wê thiŋk wê must giv lif tu thî parasit, thî pretended 'u,' and rêd kênên' az qui'nin, oltho wê sa muskêto.

Insted ev ading, English speling ofn thworts thê etimologist, as in blackbord exercîzêa, hwer a ûsles 'e' interfera with thê relashun ev 'tru-th' tu 'tru,' lo Saxon 'tru.'

I hav nau tu cœl atenshun tu thê fact that thê opozers ev rashunal speling ar ûzhuali anti-reformers in Latin pronunsiashun, thus demonstratîng thê wurthlesnes ev thar opinyuna œn etimologi. Nau, so important du I regard cœrect Latin, that (as I hav sed in thê "National Journal ev Education," March 20, 1879),—"Altho in

my Outlines of Etymology, 1878, the principles ar drawn from English, yet I hav deemd it necessari to add the Latin alphabet in an appendix, as without it I can not conceiv of an honest etymologi, either (eether) of English or of Latin."

I wil nau go farther, and sa that thè instructor hu pretendz tu tēch Inglish etimologi with thè ad ov a spūrius Inglish Latin is gilti ov a brēch ov trust; becoz, for exampl, if a k-saund is not prezēt in thè secund silabl ov Latin 'cancer,' then Inglish 'canker' and Italian 'canchero' (ch as k), or without etimologi. If Latin ne (not) is tu bē cōld *knee* (insted ov *nay*), then it is a nūer wurd than Inglish 'nay.' And if Anglo-Saxon na (no) is not tu hav thè Latin vauel ov 'arm' it is ov ēcwal ag with 'nay,' and 'no' wud bē frēm 'nay,' hwich is not thè fact, nōr is 'nay' frēm 'no.' If wē put thè vauel ov *clay* in Latin *clārus* (*clear*) wē ar no nērer thè sorç than French 'clair,' tu hwich German 'klar' wud vurtuali bē refurd, and oltho this wud enabl us tu asoçiat 'glare' (or glair) with French 'clair,' ther wud be a difficulti in acounting for 'glo' and 'glori.'

Adjurnd, tu mēt at half-past 1 o'clōc.

Wedneaday, Jūli 30.

Thè Asoshiaashun met at half-past 1 o'clōc. Thè President in thè chār. Thè minūts ov thè last mēting wur red and apruvd. On moeshun thè foloing memburs wur apointed a Comiti tu nōminat ofiçers for thè next yēr: Rev. C. K. Nelson, D. D., ov St. John's Coleg, Md., Prof. E. H. Barlow, ov Lafayette Coleg, Pa., Hon. W. D. Henkle, ov Salem, Ohio.

A paper woz red bi Prof. Barlow, frēm Mr. S. N. D. North, ov thè Ūtica Mōrning Herald, on

SPELING REFORM IN JURNALISM.

* [Mr. North's adres is spelt, by hiz recwest, acording tu the Five New Rules.]

If language, as the satirist says, was given man to conceal his thoughts, the English spelling must hav been invented to prevent any thinking at all. But if as we believe, language has a higher purpose—and that the highest purpose conceivabl in a human invention—spelling shares that purpose, for it is the vehicl by which language is able to transmit and preserve human thought. Spelling can no more be fettered than the language it embodies, or the mind that speaks thru the language. Changes both of language and spelling are as inevitabl as the development of the human race to which they bear witnes. They are dependent upon circumstances; but they wil never cease until humanity ceases to move forward or backward. The development of language is beyond the reach of human law; but its spelling is a machinery with adjustabl parts,

* 1.—Omit *a* from the digraf *ea* when pronounst as *e* short, as in *hed*, *helth*, etc.

2.—Omit silent *e* after a short vowel, as in *hav*, *giv*, *liv*, *definit*, *infinif*, *forbad*, etc.

3.—Write *f* for *ph* in such words as *alfabet*, *fantom*, *camfor*, *filosofy*, *telegraf*, etc.

4.—When a word ends with a double leter, omit the last, as in *shal*, *wil*, *clif*, *eg*, etc.

5.—Change *ed* final to *t* when it has the sound of *t*, as in *lasht*, *imprest*, *fixt*, etc.

wholly within the control both of law and reason. This Association seeks to govern these changes in spelling ; to direct and accelerate them by the application of scientific method to the evolution which neither prejudice, nor habit, nor a fixt literature can permanently retard.

I do not make my appearance before such an Association to rehearse arguments already known and accepted here, in favor of the reform of English orthograpy, nor to join the discussion of disputed questions regarding what may be termed the *technique* of the reform. These questions may safely be left to those who make the science of language the study of their lives. There is another question, quite as important, which involves the ways and means of incorporating this reform into the current orthograpy of the English writing world. As a practical business man, interested in the spelling reform chiefly because it offers a vast improvement in the business relations of the hundred million of people dependent upon English for inter-communication, I shal offer some suggestions upon this branch of the subject, in its relations to the Journalism of the United States.

There is now but one serious impediment in the way of the rapid introduction of a reformed English spelling. The general acceptance, among those whose opinion carries weight, of the abstract principles of the Spelling Reform Association, affords every encouragement to zealous perseverance. But in spite of it, the spelling reform drags. The difficulty, like that which confronts the would-be swimmer, is to take the first plunge. No man likes to spel fonetically, while all his neighbors are spelling with a dictionary at their elbow. No publisher cares to dres his books in reformed spelling, when his readers are stil wedded to the deformed spelling. The spelling association may issu its bulletins; the professors may recommend; the filologists may demonstrate the absurdity of this voluntary slavery; but stil it continues. Where shal a beginning be inade? It is left for American Journalism to make it.

This Association must frankly admit the popular indifference, among the mas of English-speaking peopl everywhere, to the proposed changes in spelling. The *vis inertia* is a powerful enemy. It becomes more powerful when, as in this case, the reform in whose light it stands, is not vehemently opposed in any quarter. Every great movement feeds upon opposition; every movement ceases to be great when it is received with indifference. This popular lethargy towards the spelling reform is due not only to the natural prejudice with which most peopl receive every proposition, however sensibl, to change fixt habits, but to a vague sense of the magnitude and difficulty of the task, behind which all the unreasoning prejudice runs for refuge. We are appealing, not to the unborn children, nor to the several suffering millions now in the schools, but to grown men and women who hav learned to spel—or rather, who think they hav learned to spel. Habit rules their world; and it is easier to overcome an army with banners. The pres is the most direct, the most far-reaching, the most powerful weapon with which you can attack it.

This passiv hostility to the spelling reform is made almost activ by a popular impression that the reform wil compel every one to learn a new alfabet, and commit to memory a new spelling of a hundred thousand English words. Such a feeling can not wel be coerced. It must be coaxt. It must be admitted that the members of the spelling reform association are in part responsibl for this impression and its consequences. The wheels of your progres wil hardly be unlockt until it is removed. I shal hope to justify these two assertions by indicating the relations of the reform to journalism.

The journalist is a man whose implements of daily labor are these English words, against whose whimsical and oppressiv spelling this Association utters anathema. As a practical man, the journalist ought to recognize the fact that he wil profit by an improvement and simplification in his tools in the same way that others profit by the wonderful things science and invention hav done for the tools of every laborer save only him who works with written and printed words. Notwithstanding the marvelous evolution in journalism effected by the fast printing pres and the telegrafic transmission of news, the journalist is stil at work with implements contemporaneous with the vellum and the stylus which Guttentberg's types made obsolete.

Language and journalism hav a history in large part common to both. Both are growths, expanding and changing, absorbing and rejecting, in obedience to laws which govern the world's progres. The journalist has seen his profession develop in two centuries from a despised and illicit pursuit into the fourth estate of the relm. Younger than the English language, journalism has caught up with it and passt it, as a system regulated and controlled by scientific principles. Our printing presses are two hundred years in advance of our spelling. Printed language is subject to the same arbitrary, accidental, contradictory and absurd rules which governed its orthograpy when England maintained and justified the censorship of the pres; when Prynne was sentenced to a fine, the pillory, the loss of his ears and imprisonment for life, because he dared to print in defiance of the licenser; when the liberty of the pres was a Utopia of political dreamers.

But journalism, which has conquered its way thru the royal licenser, thru the parliamentary prohibition, thru the common law maxim—"the greater the truth the greater the libel," to a freedom which is itself the most eloquent witnes of the advance of civilization—journalism stil rests under an intellectual bondage as slavish and exacting as that legal duress from which it has escaped. The time has truly come when it ought to insist upon emancipation from the English orthograpy of the illiterate printers of the sixteenth century.

In any calculation of the probabilities of the introduction of a reformed English spelling, the newspaper pres must be regarded as a chief agency. While it remains hostile or indifferent—which is the most effectiv hostility—the spelling reform can never take firm hold either upon the book-makers or the school teachers. The latter

especially are handicapped by precedent, in bondage to long-printed text-books, and at the mercy of the popular prejudice or indifference. Not so the pres. It may dictate the spelling of the continent, if it wil.

The increase in the number and circulation of American newspapers is the unparalleled phenomenon in the literary history of the world. Our population has doubled once every twenty-five years—but the total annual circulation of American newspapers has doubled once in every nine years—or nearly three times as fast as our population. In 1775, thirty-seven newspapers, of which none were daily, printed 1,200,000 copies annually. In 1870, 5,871 papers, of which one sixteenth were daily, printed 1,508,548,230 copies, of which nearly one-third were daily. In a single year the newspaper pres of the United States sends out a larger number of printed pages than are contained in all the libraries of America. Each page is red by from one to five citizens. Their reading is a recognized part of the daily busines of our social, political and commercial life. A century ago, books were red as almost exclusively; to-day the larger proportion of the newspaper constituency rarely looks into a book.

It is not possibl to over-estimate the influence, direct and indirect, which this endles multiplication and circulation of printed pages exerts upon the community, pñetrating to all classes day after day, morning and evening, week by week, ceaselessly, perpetually. The indirect influence of the pres, thru this constant occupancy of the public eye, is vastly greater than its direct effect upon the thought and opinion of the world. This indirect influence is largely exerted upon the world's current vernacular. Most of the changes in orthograpy during the last century hav come about thru the pres. If the pres had not adopted Webster's improvements in the spelling of a limited number of words, they must hav died a-borning. Marshal the army of words of doubtful origin and uncertain respectability the pres has forced into the dictionaries, by its persistent use of them! It seizes the coinages of busines, of politics, of the street, and givs them local habitation, until the prim and prudish dictionary makers are compelled to stamp them as genuin English words. Thus the pres "bulldozes" the language of the day—to make use of one of the instances of its tyranny. Recalling what the pres has alreedy done for the English language in this respect—whether wisely or unwisely, this is not the time to inquire—it is safe to assert that the spelling reform is a work within the compas of its powers, and that it is the natural agency, because of its wonderfully intimate and reflex relations to the people, thru which that work must be accomplisht. When a united pres has adopted the reformed orthograpy, the problem is solved; for it wil drive the rest of the world into it in self-defense, if not for self-advantage.

But this is an achievement of a long time and gradual accomplishment, even after the spirit and the purpose are secured. The genuin spelling reformer ought to stand redy to adopt at once every modification of alfabet and orthograpy essential to an absolutely fonetic spelling. But this is obviously impossibl in journalism, even if it is practicabl between the individual members of this

Association. A reformed alfabet can not be thrust at once into the newspaper pres, because the patrons of the pres can not read it. We might as wel make use of the hyeroglyphics of an Egyptian obelisk. For the pres must discharge the doubl duty of educating its readers to the reform, while it is accomplishing the reform itself. A journal which should suddenly cast off its old familiar dres, and don an alfabet in which there was a character for every sound and only one sound for every character, could not retain its constituency long enough to reconcile it to the reformation. The difficulties in the pathway of a universal introduction, even of the simpler modifications of the alfabet proposed, are almost insurmountabl. The necessity for complete new founts of type is obstacl enough to prevent unity of action in that direction.

The pres of the United States has a fixt habit of moving but a trifle faster than the community which sustains it. Its influence as an educating power is doubtles broadened by this habit. Recognizing the fact, why should not the spelling reform seize upon that trifle, and be thankful for it, in expectation of better things to come? If the pres is to be made the champion of the reform, it must be permitted to approach it by sections, as the five rules approved by the Filological Association propose. Let this Association devote its energies to the triumph of these five simpl, practicabl methods of reform in spelling, and then move onward to another and yet another five rules. Thus hav all reforms reacht their fruition. Thus are fixt habits conquered. Thus may the most stalwart prejudices be roasted to death over a slow fire. Thus, and in no other way, is it possibl to secure the powerful alliance of the newspaper pres.

There is no sound reason why every journal in the land should not at once adopt the five rules and resolutely carry them into the newspaper and the job office. Within a month from the change, every constituency wil be habituated to the improvement, and, what is better, conscious that it is an improvement. The adoption of these five rules wil be the logical extension and systematization of a habit which has long been growing upon the pres. Every tendency in journalism is towards a simpler typografy. It has abolished the indiscriminate use of the capital letters. One of Horace Greeley's familiar sentences, deformed and bedizened with a frontispiece on every noun, is now a typografical curiosity. There is a far les wasteful use of punctuation marks than custom formerly dictated. Italics are banished from the pres in the same way, and for the same reason—because editors are beginning to realize that the force of language lies not in its appearance to the eye but in its meaning to the mind. The reasoning is equally good in its application to spelling. It is not the appearance of the word, not the number of letters employed in its spelling, nor the ingenuity exercised in torturing them into the collocation least suggestiv of the pronunciation, which conveys its meaning to the reader any more than to the listener. The silent letters are nothing but the relics of modes of utterance which formerly prevailed. Omitted and elided sounds hav disappeared, leaving behind them these gravestones for us to stumbl over. Hundreds of these silent letters hav dis-

appeared in turn. The hundreds remaining will follow them some time. The eternal friction of language catches a new one every now and then. Why should they not all go at once, or in battalions?

It is years since many of us first dropt the superfluous "me" off "*programme*," and the only objection I ever heard raised was advanced by a certain college president, when urged to use the briefer form upon the commencement scheme—he was afraid the people would think the faculty did not know how to spell! Already many of us are long used to dropping the final "te" from the entire group of words like *cigarette*, *quarlette*, *etiquette*; and the words have gained a manly, straightforward appearance from the elision. But why do we stop here? Both press and community are committed to the principle of these improvements because both have followed the example of the brave Noah Webster, in kicking a lot of these orthographic tramps out of doors. Why do we hesitate, then, to press on, as fast as we may, to the legitimate conclusion? I shall refuse to believe that the courage of the American journalist is not equal to the test which loyalty to the spelling reform applies.

There is nothing in the five rules more radical, more orthographically *outré* than are the changes alluded to above. Why do we continue to carry that ugly "ugh," like an old man of the sea, upon the backs of our *thoroughs*, *throughs* and *boroughs*? Long ago the people of my county sanctioned its "taking off," when they permitted the descendants of the founders of the first village planted on the headwaters of the Mohawk River to shorten up their "Whitesborough," so that the village letter-writer might have time to reach the mail before it closed. Who will mis the "ue" that the spelling reform association begs the newspapers to drop from the rear of *catalogue* and *demagogue*, where the pair have been silently catching a stolen ride for all these generations? Why should not the press be as fierce to kick this intruding letter *k* out of the alphabet as it is to drive a thief out of public office? Why must we use a *p* and an *h*, when a single *f* is better than both? Why should we longer flatter our consonants by the inevitable doublet at every possible opportunity? All the world stops when it is thru—except the printer. With him, as with the witches, it is an endless "double, double, toil and trouble."

Of the several phases of the practical aspect of this question as applied to journalism, the saving of time, labor and money is of the first importance. I once had the awful temerity to print a column of matter after the manner of the five rules, just to show how easy and delightful it was. A subsequent calculation based upon that column showed a saving of not quite one letter to a line, in a column of 248 lines. If the whole paper had been spelled in the same economical fashion, the saving would have been 7,500 letters per day—more than two million letters a year, or about one-thirty-sixth of the total number of letters used and re-used in the composition of the three hundred and thirteen issues. These figures become more impressive, when applied to the large quarto editions of the metropolitan press. They become still more impres-

siv, when by an extension of the same calculation, we find that the 600 daily papers in the United States are setting up and re-distributing, over and over again, one billion, five hundred and fifty million of the superfluous letters which would disappear unmissd and unmourned from our spelling, by the adoption of the five rules. The weekly and monthly press, numbering 5,300, are setting up the same number of superfluous letters. If the opponent of the spelling reform wil stop long enough to count one billion, he may consent to believe before his task is finisht, that it is worth while to save the vital energy, the precious time, the costly labor thus wasted in blind homage to the frailties of our mother tongue. To put this question in another form, this calculation shows that enough of these superfluous letters are used by those who neglect the five rules, to fil ful five issues a year of the journal with which I am connected.

Mr. Jones, of London, has carried the calculation stil farther. Appealing for the adoption of a fonetic spelling throughout, he shows the gain from the total omission of silent letters to be seven per cent. This would give a saving of \$105,000 a year in the composition bills of the *London Daily News*, and a saving of \$210,000 in the composition of the *London Times*. This is an enörmous waste—a self-imposed tax upon knowledge, upon literature, upon the newspaper publisher and the newspaper reader. The whole tendency of the times is toward the economic reform. It is the cry in politics; and the best work of science is devoted to the utilization of waste materials and refuse. The pres is forever prating about governmental economy, and forever tolerating within itself the most uneconomical feature of our nineteenth century life.

The printer is the best speller in the world. It is his busines to know how to put the right letter in the right place; and yet there are no printers who are infallibl spellers. They are addicted to the dictionary, tormented by the variegated spelling of hurried editors, pursued by the argus-eyed proof-reader. No occupation is so endlessly made up of detail. One by one, each of the myriad letters which make the current literature of the day is picked up, adjusted, and again distributed, with an average of six different movements to each letter. There are fifty thousand printers in the United States. In their behalf, the journalists ought to combine for the ostracism of the superfluous letters. If we are ever to hav a machine by which type can be successfully set and distributed, the banishment of the silent letters wil become of even greater mechanical importance than now.

The pres need hav no fear that its constituency wil rebel against the gradual introduction of the spelling reform. The cantankerous subscriber who stops his paper because this or that feature of its mechanical arrangement does not suit him, wil doubtles be on hand; but he must be discounted any way. We may judge of the general effect upon readers by the remarkabl popularity of Josh Billings' writings—the pioneer spelling reformer, who has broken the pathway more thoroly than we imagin, by showing peopl that the nearest and easiest way to reach a given orthografic point, is

by the bee line. Insted of disguising his wit by this straight spelling, the almanac humorist makes it the more palatable and distinguishable.

It is a fact capable of demonstration that the average newspaper reader does not know how to spell. This is a grave charge to bring against the independent and intelligent American people, and in the face of a recent declaration of Richard Grant White that "but comparatively few persons do not always spell according to the dictionary." But it is proved by the letters which are written by newspaper subscribers, ordering or renewing a subscription. Any publisher will bear out the assertion that as many as every third letter of this kind is misspelled, in one or more words. Yet they are the briefest possible letters; and the words used are the most familiar and the least intricate, orthographically. I insist that no journal has a more intelligent constituency than the one with which I am connected; and yet its readers have half a dozen different methods of spelling the word "*Herald*." It is not a word that the five rules will help them with; but if such a word is a stumbling block, what vast assistance the five rules will be in numberless words now spelled in ignorance with nearer approach to the fonetic orthography than the dictionaries tolerate.

The average newspaper reader is the farmer, the business man, the well-to-do mechanic—people with the average education and average culture, employed in other than literary pursuits, and prone to forget the quixotic orthography they could never completely master in the days of their schooling. It is no fault of their own that they slip in their spelling. Let us rather look upon it as a disgrace to the English-speaking world of the nineteenth century, that it has permitted itself to reach that century without perfecting for its daily use an orthography so scientific that every word can be spelled as a column of figures is added, and the spelling verified as the addition is verified.

Here, then, is a great and open field for journalism—new to it as a mission, but suggestively akin to the achievement it already boasts in the establishment of its own right of free speech. The work is ready to its hand—ripe for journalism to reap the rewards of the agitation which you gentlemen have so unselfishly and persistently kept alive. The spelling reform needs but the single impetus which the press can give it. Its accomplishment will outrank any triumph the newspaper has yet achieved, in its positive benefits to the world. I wish that every journalist whose eye may fall upon these words could be induced to consider this work that pleads for the championship of his profession, in the light of his own ideal of what that profession ought to be and to do. In no other field can it so largely and beneficently demonstrate its power. The press of the United States is divided between hostile political clans. The energies of one half are largely wasted in fighting the other half. Its direct influence is pitifully weakened and neutralized by this perpetual jangle. Here at least is one field in which it can unite with a common purpose, to achieve a work that will win for it the lasting regard of the people who read. Why shall not journalism contribute of

its abundant might to make our glorious English language not only the most affluent and concise, but the most filosofical of written languages, crowning it with a new glory as it marches on its conquering way? Chevaliers of the pres! let us wage war against the despotism of the dictionary!

DISCUSHUN.

Vij President S. S. Haldeman in the char.

Mr. Francis Wells, editor ov the Evening Bulletin, Philadelphia, wos not redi tu accept the dutia ov the jurnalist az stated in the paper. He suggested objecshuna tu the reform.

Franklin Taylor, LL. D., hed-master ov the Philadelphia High School, Rev. Dr. H. L. Wayland, Prof. Barlow, and Mrs. E. B. Burna continud the discushun in repli.

A paper wos presented bi Hon. W. T. Harris, Superintendent ov Public Instrucshun in St. Louis, Mo., en

THE POTENÇI OV CAPREÇ.

[We can onli giv an abstract ov hiz paper.]

Mr. Harris sed that ther ar tu epoaing forcea in the soshal organ-izem, the pursonal activiti ov individuale, hwich ia tu be regarded aa a çentrifugal forç, and the soshal impuls, the feling ov solidariti, hwich ia a çentripetal forç.

The çentrifugal forç, the capriçea ov individuale, ia espesshali strong in the begininga ov a reform lik this. The pursonaliti ia rauad tu vigoros activiti bi revolt agenst the old establisht custuma, and goz on tu expashiet and disport itself freli. Everi reformer ia redi tu invent spelinga ov hiz on, and tu chang them freli acording tu hiz capriçea.

Mr. Harris thot the Spelling Reform had bin in this stag long enuf. The reformera nau cuming together, and under the influenç ov a comun purpos, shud begin tu fel the atractiv tendençi, the çentripetal forç, the deajr for ùniti. The members ov this Asoshiasshun shud be redi tu yeld thar capriçea tu the general rean, and harmoniz ol thar scema. Tha wil then exerçiz a most pauerful atracshun on uthers. The Filolegical Asoshiasshun ia a nachural çenter ov influenç. The muvment in England ia hopful in this vü. The combinasshun ov Engliish and American oheritia wil giv a çentral forç ov such pauer az tu bring ol tu härmoni, and ashur the reform an orderli pögres, and, it ma be hopt, spedi sucçes.

DISCUSHUN.

President March in the char.

Prof. A. M. Gammell, ov Providence, R. I., incwird hau far the Asoshiasshun had gen toards limiting the frèdum ov individuale tu spel az tha plèz. Did not the Asoshiasshun hav a plan ov spelling for ol? Hwet ar the "fiv rule" hwich ar menshnd so ofen? He

had but latli becum interested in the subject. The Providence Journal had reported the aeshun ov the Filological Asoshiashun at Newport, and givn an ilustrashun ov the speling proposd bi it, and he did not find it at al ilegibl or repulsiv. He had in fact bin attracted bi it. Woe the plan ov this Asoshiashun the sam?

Prof. Barlow expland that the aeshun ov the Asoshiashun woe bast on that ov the filologists. It accepts the neçesiti and the deajr- ablnes ov having a standard speling, generali reçevd and binding; and it haz givn the alfabet and rule for this standard speling ov the fütür. But it recognizez the imposibiliti ov geting everibodi tu üa it imediatli. It therfor expects a caotic period, and trie tu led the wa thru it bi advajing several minor changez. He red the thre wurdz, the elevn wurdz, and the "fiv rulez" (se opening paper), and directed atenshun tu the Buletinz ov the Asoshiashun, in hwich thez materz ar expland, espeshali tu the bibliografi ov Speling Reform literachur in the Buletin for April, 1878.

Hen. W. D. Henkle, Editor ov the Ohio Educational Monfhly and Educational Notes and Queriez, sed: I did not hav the plezhur ov hering the paper or papera red this afternün, having spent the tim in the Department ov Industrial Educashun, witnessng practical manipülashunz in sculptür.

I can sa, haeuver, on the general subject that I am thuroli in favor ov reform in our barbarus speling. I go in for a purfect reforma- shun, wun that wil end in the üs ov a pürli fonetic alfabet. Aze I sed last yer at the mätng ov this Asoshiashun at the White Mount- ains, I can bring miself tu endors the mild recemedashunz ov this Asoshiashun onli on the ground ov thar adopsun being the for-runer ov general demoralizashun in speling. The consecwent anarci ma mak litereri pepl wiling tu accept a reformd alfabet. The daz ov the etimological objeckshun tu the reform ar nerli past. No respectabl scolar wud nau risk hie repütashun bi reproducing the argüments ov Dean Trench agenst the reform. Twenti-fiv yera ago I red a paper in Çinçinnati on the etimological objeckshun then so generali urg'd. The stat ov the public mind in referenç tu the reform iz nau cwjt diferent. The litereri world iz awakning, and nau iz the tim tu mak efectiv asölts on our prezent orthografi. Oltho I du not belev in al the argüments üel bi speling reformerz, nor al the statments mad bi them, I hartili endors the muvment tu remuv the disgraful anomaliz ov our prezent speling—a speling hwich woe not fixt, az sam asurt, bi Dr. Samuel Johnson, but bi riiterz a hundred yera befor the publicashun ov hie famus dicshneri, az ma be found bi a referenç tu buks ov that tim, hol pagez ov hwich contain fü or no variashunz from the normal standard ov tu-da.

I thiñk I se wae in hwich the reform can mak rapid advanç. It must be rememberd that the longer a sistem ov orthografi remanez the sam, the mor difficult it wil be tu chang it. The sacrednes ov our prezent speling must be deströid and then the reformashun wil be üel. Fonetic print iz tu meni a monster ov fritful men that iz hated az sün az sën. But I höp that it wil be sën so oft that it wil gro familyur, then be pited, then embract. If nüapaperz generali wud print a cölm with fonetic tip, and then az pepl becum mor

familyur with it print tu columa, then thrè, and so on, bi the tim the fonetic speling shal fil haf the spac thar wud bè a clamor tu let the old speling go entirli, espeshali if children shud bè töt in the scule the nü speling, hwich tha can hardli fal tu lik beter than the old.

I reçevd a fü daa ago a copi ov a paper cöld "The Vidette," publisht at Valparaíso, Ind., in hwich the persunal colum woa printed in fonetic speling. I thöt the selecshun ov this colum for the nü speling a hapi wun, as everi wun wents tu rëd the persunala. I höp meni uther nüspapers wil imitat The Vidette and thus hasn the reform. It can bè acomplisht within the next fifti yëre if such a cörs as sugested bè adopted.

Further remårks wur mad bi Mr. Knudsen and Dr. F. Taylor.

Dr. Taylor eferd a rezolüshun, hwich after discushun and amendment woa past, as feloa:

Rezolvd, That the President ov this Asoshiashun jë recwestea tu obtan from the Neshunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun as ful recognishun ov the speling reform as pesibl in ther publicashuna.

On moshun ov Prof. R. H. Carothera, ov the Stat Normal Scul, Shippensburg, Pa.:

Rezolvd, That the President bè recwestea tu hav the Speling Reform preazented tu the Soçial Sjenç Asoshiashun.

A letter woa red from Mr. N. B. Webster, ov Norfolk, Va., comünicating a rezolüshun ov the Stat T'èchera' Asoshiashun ov Virginia in favor ov the reform:

Rezolvd, 1. That a comiti bè apointed with instrucshuna tu recwest the Virginia representativs tu Cөггres tu üa ther influenç tu secür favorabl acshun on the memorial in behaf ov Speling Reform tu bè preazented tu that bodi, and also tu bring the mater tu the atenshun ov the Virginia Legislachur, and secür such acshun as ma sëm tu them adviaseabl.

2. That a permanent comiti on Speling Reform, consisting ov thrè, bè apointed.

President J. M. Garnett, ov St. John's Coleg, Maryland, reporteä acshun in favor ov the reform bi the Stat T'èchera' Asoshiashun ov Maryland.

Dr. Nelson preazented the report ov the Comiti tu neminat eficëra. The report woa accepted and the eficëra nominated wur elected as feloa:

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Committee on Finance: E. H. BARLOW, M. DEWEY, D. C. HEATH.

* NOTE.—Prof. Barlow has resigned, and Mr. Dewey has consented to serve as Secretary.

A Report from Secreteri Dewey was presented and refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

A Report from Trezürer Barlow was presented, and refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

Mrs. E. B. Burna proposd tu establish a Tract-fond. Refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

An informal mètting ov the frends ov the reform in the evning was annuncd.

Rezolvd, That the thanks ov the Asoshiashun bẽ tenderd tu the Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun for ther meni curtesia, tu the Bord ov Edücashun ov the Çiti ov Philadelphia for the üs ov the Hi Scul Biling, and tu the pres for ther reports ov the mèttinga.

Adjurnd tu mèt at the cõl ov the Execütiv Comiti.

JAS. W. WALK, *Sec. pro tem.*

[NOTE.—As editor ov these Proceedings, I wish tu asume all responsibilti for the speling and typographical eror. If pronounciation wer mor nearly settled, ther wud hav bin mor consistency in the former, and if I had had mor time for revision ther wud hav bin les ov the latter.—O. C. BLACKMER.]

ALFABET OV THE SPELING REFORM ASOSHIGSHUN.

Vauela.

Short.		Long.	
I	i, it.	Ē ē=ī,	hē, poliç.
E	e, met.	Ā a=ē,	potato, thēy, fare.
A	a, at.	ā,	fare (in America).
Q	q, ask (sē Dicshuneria).	ā,	fār.
Θ	o, net, what.	ō,	nōr, wall.
O	o, wholly (in Nū Ingland).	ō,	nō, holy.
U	u, but.	ū,	būrn.
U	u, full.	ū,	rūle, fool, mūv.

Diffhørgz: Ī ī=ai, fīnd, faind. QU au, haus=house. OI oi, oil. Ū ü=yu or iu, ūnit, yunit, mūaic, miuzic.

Cønsonants.

Surd.		Sonant.	
P	p, pet.	B	b, bet.
T	t, tep.	D	d, did.
CH	ch, church.	J	j, or ġ, jet, gem.
C	c, or k, q, cake, cwit (quit).	G	g, get.
F	f, fit, filosofer.	V	v, vat.
TH	th, thin, pithy.	TH	th, Thē, thē.
S	s, or ç, so, çent.	Z	z, or a, zone, ia.
SH	sh, shē.	ZH	zh, fūzhun.
WH	wh, which (in Igglānd).	W	w, wē.
H	h, hē	L l, lo.	R r, rat. Y y, yē. M m, mē. N n, no.
		NG	ng, or ģ, king, iġk.

Silabic: l, nobl, nobla; m, spaama; n, tokn, tokna.

[The foloing iz printed in the "alfabet ov the future." Onli three niu leterz and twenti-three old ones ar needed tu represent the 32 elementeri soundz.—O. C. BLACKMER.]

An alfabet intended for yus bai a vast cømiuniti nid net atemt an egz·hestiv analisis øv dhī elements øv uterans, and a reprezentēshun øv dhī naisest varaietiz øv articiulēshun; it mē wel līv rum fər dhī unavøidabl plē øv indivijual and local pronunshiēshun.

No langwēj haz ever had, ør iz laicli tu hav, a purfect alfabet; and, in chēnjing and amending dhī mod øv raiting a langwēj ølredi long ritn, regard must nesasereli bī had tu whet iz practicali posibl cwait az much az tu whet iz inhīrentli dezairabl.

An ølterd ørthøgrafi wil bī unavøidabli øfensiv tu dhøz hu ar furst cøld øpen tu yuz it; but eni sensibl and cønsistent niu sistem wil rapidli win dhī harti preferens øv dhī mas øv raiterz.

Dhī Roman alfabet iz so waidli and furmli establisht in yus amung dhī līding sivilaizd nēshunz dhat it can net bī displēst; in adapting it tu impruvd yus fər Inglish, dhī øfort øv scølarz shud bī directed toardz its yus widh yuniførmiti and in cønfermiti widh udher nēshunz.

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Short.		Vauels.	Long.
I	i, it.	E ē=ī,	hē, poliç.
E	e, met.	Q a=ē,	potato, thēy, fare.
A	a, at.	ā,	fare (in America).
Q	a, ask (sè Dicshuneria).	ā,	fār.
Θ	o, net, what.	ō,	nōr, wall.
O	o, wholly (in Nū Iggländ).	ō,	nō, hōly.
U	u, but.	ū,	būrn.
U	u, full.	ū,	rūle, fool, mūv.

Diffhenge: I ī=ai, fīnd, faind. QU au, haus=house. OI oi, oil. Ū ü=yu or iu, ünit, yunit, müsic, miuëic.

Surd.		Censonants.		Sonant.	
P	p, pet.	B	b, bet.		
T	t, top.	D	d, did.		
CH	ch, church.	J	j, or ġ, jet, gem.		
C	c, or k, q, cake, cwit (quit).	G	g, get.		
F	f, fit, filofer.	V	v, vat.		
TH	th, thīn, pifhy.	DH	th, Thē, thē.		
S	s, or ç, so, çent.	Z	z, or a, zone, ia.		
SH	sh, shē.	ZH	zh, fūzhun.		
WH	wh, whīch (in Iggländ).	W	w, wē.		
H	h, hē	L l, lo. R r, rat. Y y, yē. M m, mē. N n, no. NG ng, or ŋ, king, iŋk.			

Silabic: l, nobl, noblē; m, spaema; n, tokn, tokna.

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No langwēj haz ever had, or iz laicli tu hav, a purfect alfabet; and, in chēnjing and amending dhī mod ov raiting a langwēj elredi long ritn, regard must nesereli bī had tu whot iz practicali pōsibl cwaīt az much az tu whot iz inhīrentli dezairabl.

An olterd orthograp̄hī bī unavoiðabli ofensiv tu dhoz hu ar furst celd upen tu enī sensibl and consistent niu sistem wil rapidli win dhī renens ov dhī mas ov raiterz.

Dhī Roman alfabet is fūrmli and furmli establisht in yus amung dhī liding sivilatzo; it can not bī displēst; in adapting it tu impruvd yus alfabet, a fōrt ov scelarz shud bī directed toardz its yus wōrldly and in cōnfermiti widh udher nēshunz.





